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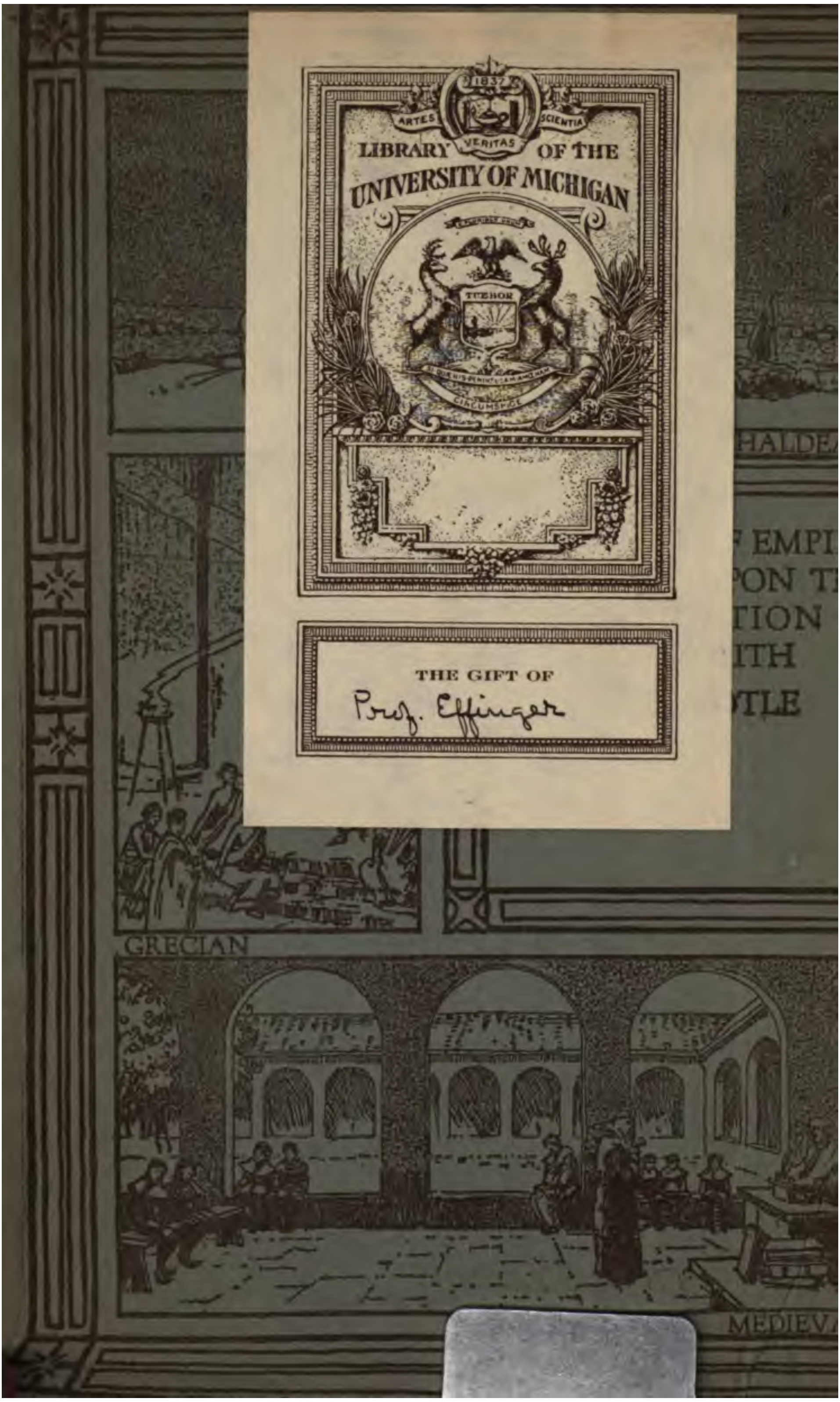

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CHAPTER ONE

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FOURTH YEAR

1. Introduction. The writer of these pages assumes that those who read the following instructions and directions relative to the course of study and the methods of teaching arithmetic in the Fourth School Year will also read the instructions in Volume II, pages 177-206, relative to the work in the first three grades. It will be advisable at least for the teacher of the fourth grade to study carefully the work of the third grade. She will be unable to appreciate the view-point of the following pages without a clear understanding of the course and the methods set forth for the preceding grade, and she will also be unable to act wisely in all cases of instruction in the fourth grade unless she knows what preparation the pupil has made through the preceding grade. To know what her pupil should be expected to learn in her grade she must be thoroughly familiar with two things — what the child has already been taught and what he will be expected to be prepared to do when he enters the fifth grade. Here is where many otherwise excellent teachers fail. They have a false notion of a course of study. They seem to think it is made up of uncut stones in a quarry rather than the finished pieces, each designed for a particular place in the structure to be erected. Each stone must be cut with reference to its articulation in the structure. So it is with a course of study in arithmetic or any other subject. The teacher is unfit for her task unless she has familiarized herself with the whole structure — the entire course of study.

2. Work of the First Three Grades. However, with the thought that it may not be possible always for the reader of these pages to have access to the discussion of the course and methods designed for the first three years of the child's school life, a few suggestions are offered here.

The work of the first three years is largely improvised by the teacher and in many schools no text-book is used by the pupils until the beginning of the fourth school year. We advise the use of a text in the third school year provided the text is adapted to children of that age and development. If the teacher is required to use a book in the third grade that is poorly adapted to the needs of her pupils, she should understand both child and subject well enough to enable her to adapt the text to her needs by omitting all problems too difficult and problems unrelated to the child's environmental life, and also supplement the text with such problems, exercises and drills as her class may need. The teacher should be given sufficient latitude to encourage her initiative in such matters.

3. Preparation for Fourth Grade Work. (a) WRITING NUMBERS. On entering the fourth grade the pupil should have a pretty thorough knowledge of the reading and the writing of numbers to millions, which means that the notation and numeration have been mastered, for if an adult can read and write millions, he usually will be able to handle any number that will present itself to him in the practical affairs of life. He can learn billions, trillions, etc., as the occasion may demand, and in a few minutes of time. What the child needs is to have such a thorough knowledge of numbers of a practical size that he may never hesitate nor blunder in reading or writing them, at sight or dictation. At the beginning of the fourth school year the teacher should test each pupil to see if this knowledge has been achieved. The most important test is the test of dictation. Can they write such numbers as these readily from dictation: 8,909; 65,085; 906,700; 700,007; 1,000,000; 1,010,010; 90,090,090; and other less difficult numbers? In this test, pupils should not be sent to the blackboard where one member of the class may copy from another. These dictations should be taken while pupils are at their seats. A five-minute drill twice a day will result in rapid gains by the pupils. If the pupils can write these numbers readily and accurately, there is little reason why the subject should ever be introduced by the teacher again in any succeeding grade.

(b) READING NUMBERS. This is less difficult to learn. Pupils should be taught units, tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousands, hundreds of thousands, millions, tens of millions, and hundreds of millions. The reading of numbers and the writing of numbers can not well be taught separately. Again emphasis must be placed upon the value of drill. In reading numbers the pupils should be required to read aloud, numbers placed upon the blackboard, in order that the entire class may have the benefit of each reading, learn to detect errors, etc. There is no danger from copying in this case. Concert reading of numbers should never be required nor permitted. The methods suggested for both the writing and the reading of numbers make impossible the opportunity to copy.

(c) FUNDAMENTAL OPERATIONS. The next test for the teacher of the fourth grade to apply to her pupils at the beginning of the school year is the test in the four fundamental operations. This test or review will require some time. The teacher should read thoroughly the course covered during the third year and the directions given the teacher. Before she undertakes any advanced work, each step of that course should be thoroughly reviewed. Whenever possible, and it usually is possible, new problems should be employed, but care should be exercised to see that the same type of problem is given as was given the pupil in the third grade. The teacher should not sacrifice accuracy for speed, nor allow the pupil to feel that he needs no further drill. This is not the time for many concrete problems, no matter how interesting they may be. Interest may also be aroused in the drill exercises in abstract problems by encouraging the spirit of rivalry and competition.

(d) OTHER OPERATIONS. The review in factoring, fractions, denominational numbers, measurements, etc., as outlined for the third grade may be postponed in the main until the class is ready to advance in the study of these topics into new and more difficult phases than those presented in the previous grade. However, it should be said that a thorough review of factors found in multiplications to 9 times 9 should be made from time to time. When the pupil sees 48 he must also be able to visualize six 8's and eight 6's. In his advance work in the fourth grade he must be taught also to see in 48, two 24's, twenty-four 2's, four 12's, and twelve 4's. But these latter factors are not factors of multiplication because in each set of factors, one is a number of two figures and therefore such factors are not fundamental as parts of the multiplication "table" the pupil has learned.

(e) THE HOW AND THE WHEN. During the fourth school year the pupil completes his mastery of fundamental operations and again enters the field of concrete problems. He must first have learned how to add, subtract, multiply, and divide, and factoring and simple exercises in fractions and exercises of this kind. He now needs to be taught *when* to add, subtract, multiply, and divide. When he has mastered these two things in arithmetic, there is not much more to learn. The first assignment, the *how*, is chiefly the work of the primary grades, hence must be completed in the fourth school year. The second assignment, the *when*, should begin in the fourth school year and after this year it should constitute the chief concern of the teacher.

4. Pedagogical Principles. In Volume II, Chapter III of this series, will be found a brief discussion of the principles underlying instruction in arithmetic. The reader of these pages is urged to read that discussion. The course in arithmetic is undergoing radical change in recent years. Much has been done to abridge the course by omitting many topics formerly thought essential; to enrich the course by the introduction of more timely and practical topics; by the use of methods of teaching that recognize the interests of the child, and the practical application of the knowledge and skill gained to real problems of life beyond the school. These changes in our conception of the purpose and value of arithmetic have necessitated important changes in the subject-matter to be used and has rendered useless much of the material to be found in arithmetics, particularly those written at a time when the disciplinary value of difficult problems was considered such an important end to be achieved. The subject has, to be sure, a very high disciplinary or cultural value, but this discipline may be obtained through the application of arithmetical processes and arithmetical reasoning to *real* problems with much more lasting benefit than when obtained through the mastery of improbable problems or of those having no relation to the probable future needs of the pupil.

Arithmetic calls for the use of the reasoning powers and gives the pupil the best training he can be given in logic. Through arithmetic he learns that some things are certain and unequivocally true. The thinking required in arithmetic is close, logical and accurate. To form the habit of such thinking is a valuable accomplishment, not only in solving arithmetical problems, but in meeting many of the most trying situations in a useful life. Arithmetical processes are both inductive and deductive, and the concrete problems furnish material for developing both types of reasoning.

5. The Fourth Year Course. Stated in brief outline, the course for this grade should include (1) The reviews already indicated; (2) the mastery of addition of any column of numbers found in ordinary life problems; (3) the addition of a series of numbers in vertical columns and verification in horizontal lines, as found in making out various forms of statistical reports; (4) the subtraction of numbers in every form; (5) the division of numbers actually found in practical problems; (6) the factoring of numbers and the use of this principle in multiplication, division, and cancellation; (7) the L.C.M. of numbers, ordinarily under 1000; (8) G.C.D. of numbers, confined to the same range of numbers as in L.C.M., and the practical application of G.C.D. and L.C.M. in the reduction, addition, and subtraction of fractions; (9) compound numbers; (10) simple exercises in reducing fractions to "a common denominator," and what that means, adding and subtracting small common fractions, and multiplication and division of fractions objectively.

Some teachers may think this an ambitious program, while others will say that children in their schools can "cipher" much farther than this. It may be well to say that by omitting many such subjects as apothecaries weight, troy weight, units of measure not in common use or in use by a majority of people, alligation, foreign exchange, the most forms of insurance, true discount, bank discount, partial payments, compound interest, and by postponing others to be taught in the high school, such as metric system, cube root, stocks and bonds, it will be found that sufficient time may be given to the remaining topics to enable the teacher to emphasize thoroughness.

6. Reading Problems. If the interpretation of problems is so important in enabling the student to know *when* to add, subtract, multiply, and divide, the work of the mental analysis and interpretation should begin in this grade. Pupils should be given frequent drills in the reading of problems and in explaining their meaning. It is now necessary that the terms employed in stating problems should be understood and the processes required to determine certain relationships should be defined, not often by having the definitions memorized from the book but usually by having them evolved from the understanding of the pupils. *It is worth much more to a pupil to be able to formulate a definition than merely to remember the words of the definition set down in the book.* To illustrate this thought, suppose we have the pupils read a few problems such as these:

1. If the product of two numbers is 324 and one of the numbers is 12, what is the other number?

2. If the multiplier is 6 and the multiplicand is 18, what is the product?

3. If the product of two numbers is 144 and the multiplicand is 18, what is the multiplier?

4. The quotient of two numbers is 27; the divisor is 14; what is the dividend?

5. The divisor is 8; the quotient is 9; what is the dividend?

6. The quotient is 14; the dividend is 196; what is the divisor?

7. The sum of two numbers is 189; one of the numbers is 21; what is the other number?

8. The common factors of two numbers are 2, 3, and 4; what is the G.C.D. of the numbers?

9. The greatest common divisor of two numbers is 12; the factors of the smaller number, not common to the larger number, are 5 and 7; what is the smaller number?

10. The distance around an oblong field is 40 rods; the width of the field is 8 rods; what is the length of the field?

It will be observed that in each problem the essential thing is a clear understanding of the meaning of one or more terms. The problem cannot be solved intelligently until it is read intelligently, which means that the pupil must be able to visualize the terms given in their relation to the term to be found. When the child learns that the answer to any problem is nothing more nor less than one of the terms necessary to make the problem, and at the same time learns the relationship of this unexpressed term (the answer), to the terms given in the problem, he sees what must be done to find that unknown or omitted term. For example, $4 \times ? = 24$. The child sees here that one of the numbers to be multiplied together is missing, but he sees that the *product* is 24. If the problem is read "Four *times* what equals twenty-four," he must think of 4 as the multiplier. He then needs to find the multiplicand. If stated in the form of an ordinary multiplication we have:

$$\begin{array}{r} ? \\ \underline{\times 4} \\ 24 \end{array}$$

It does not take the child long to see that 24 must be divided by 4 in order to find the multiplicand.

7. Making Definitions. A few drill exercises of this character should lead the child to see the relationship of multiplicand, multiplier and product, and accordingly to formulate a definition for each term. The definition should follow the drills, illustrations and problem rather than precede them. The pupil must be taught how to make definitions of his own, *but his own definitions should never be memorized.* If he can make a certain definition once, why can he not make it again? If he can make it again, what excuse is there for his "learning it by heart?" His succeeding definitions will be improvements upon his first one, because of succeeding experiences.

This same general principle is followed throughout the succeeding grades. Rules and formulas are developed by the teacher by a study of the meaning of the terms employed in a problem and the relationship those terms bear to each other. The reader is referred to succeeding pages for further development of this idea.

8. Oral Numbers. Formerly "mental" arithmetic was much emphasized, perhaps in some schools to the detriment of the mastery of principles. Pupils were taught to carry in the mind, pictures of the various mental operations so as to be able to perform the successive operations without the resort to the use of the pencil. While there was much value in this kind of number work it was never worth as much as its most ardent advocates assigned to it. Operations were often so complicated that detailed oral analyses were required and those required so much time that there was a positive loss in final values and often the power of accurate calculation was weakened, although the memory was usually strengthened. Today many schools have swung to the opposite extreme and there is not enough of the oral arithmetic. The fourth grade is the one in which systematic work of this character should be required. "Mental" problems should deal with small numbers and never with intricate puzzles. The object should be to strengthen the pupils' power to visualize the factors in a problem and to quicken his operations with small numbers.

9. Written Work. The teacher of this grade should remember that most of the arithmetical calculations in the real experiences in life are made on paper, first because involved calculations need to be checked up frequently, and, secondly, because most of our calculations must be made matters of record. The accountant, the banker, the contractor, the merchant, the farmer and all others who use arithmetic beyond simple calculations, need to record the result of their computations, measurements, estimates, accounts, etc.

Written arithmetic is the arithmetic of practical use. The teacher should begin now to insist upon correct written forms — written solutions, bills, accounts, statistics, balances, etc.

(a) NEATNESS. Neatness in the writing of papers in arithmetic is a valuable habit to acquire. The teacher should not require so many written solutions as to produce a distaste on the part of the pupil, but pupils may be taught to take as much pride in producing neat calculations as in making neat drawings. Written analyses are valuable also as language lessons. If a pupil be taught the correct form of expression in the explanation of a solution, the habit thus formed will strengthen his regard for logic and his use of exact English.

(b) CORRECTING THE WORK. In the correction of written work in arithmetic some system should be devised so that when a pupil has had his attention called to an error he can find that error with certainty. He should then be held to the early correction of the error. If this be not done a slovenly habit will result and he will repeat his error time after time. Punctuation, spelling and form should be insisted upon as well as accuracy and neatness of solution.

10. Multiplication. The multiplication of any probable number by another should be a goal for the fourth school year. To accomplish this it is not necessary that much time should be spent upon long numbers. The secret of early success in complete multiplication is a thorough mastery of accuracy in the use of the "multiplication table," so called from 2×2 to 9×9. No matter how long the multiplicand nor how long the multiplier, the process of multiplication can not go beyond 9 times 9. The rest of the problem consists of two rather simple processes — first, the proper placing of each successive product, always determined by the column in which the figure of the multiplier occurs, and second, the addition of rather easy columns of the successive products. It will be seen that unerring accuracy in multiplication in long problems depends chiefly upon the single process learned in preceding grades.

(a) PROBLEMS. If the pupil can solve the following problems, there is no reason why much more time should be given to formal work in abstract multiplication until decimals are encountered:

1. 23456	2. 34567890	3. 9897654	4. 7568908
876	750645	8070605	300900

(b) THE USE OF ZERO. Instruction concerning the use of the 0 in the multiplier will need to be given. The pupil needs to remember that when any number is "multiplied" by 0, the product is 0. Let him reason in this way — suppose the 0 were the multiplicand, then 9 times 0 would be 0, or 9 times nothing would be nothing; or if there are nine boys in the class and each one had not as much money as a penny, the entire nine would not have a penny. To fix in the mind the proper place for the first right hand figure of each successive product, have the pupil note the column in which the figure of the multiplier he is using, occurs. Have him note that when he multiplies 35 by 6, he writes the 6 in units' place, also the 0 of the product. He then must do that with each figure used as a multiplier. Another way is to have him multiply by 0 and write the row of 0's in the proper place and then proceed with the next figure of the multiplier, as in multiplying 35 by 60. He will soon see that the row of 0's does not affect the result in any way, hence may as well not be written into the solution.

It is not advisable to give a large number of these long problems. The class will need drill for accuracy first and rapidity next, and the shorter numbers are best calculated for this purpose. An occasional "ciphering match" is a good thing to develop accuracy and speed.

11. Division. In division, the same general principles should be followed. There is no reason why the child should be asked to solve such a problem as, 3470896456 ÷ 45673467. After he has mastered the process of division he can amuse himself, if he likes, by solving these improbable problems. Follow the suggestions given for the third grade. Use as divisors 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71, 81, and 91, until the process is well fixed. After a few weeks of drill with these divisions, use any combination of two figures for a divisor. Later, a few problems with divisors of three and four figures should be given, but it is not often that we need, in the actual experience of life, to divide by very long numbers. Let us save the child's time and energy to devote to more important achievements.

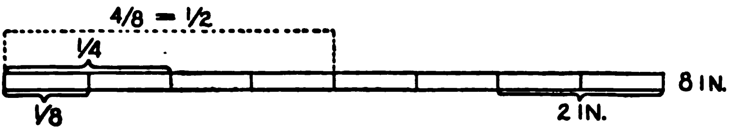
12. Factoring. Much of the failure in applying arithmetic to real problems is due to a failure to factor numbers and to use cancellation to shorten the process of multiplication and division. Here is another place where drill, drill, drill is necessary. Pupils should be able to factor at sight, quickly, any composite number to 100 — to tell every number of one figure that will exactly divide any number to 100. Most modern texts in arithmetic furnish an abundance of problem material for this drill. Cancellation should be thoroughly taught — the effect of placing a number "above the line," and "below the line." Drills should include exercises in which the pupil is required to find *common* factors, not merely divisors.

For example: $\dfrac{36\times64\times84\times900}{560\times40\times49\times24}=\text{what?}$

In this problem no number in the divisor or dividend will exactly divide one on the other side of the line. However, there are many common factors and these must be cancelled out. In other words, this *fraction*, as it is, must be reduced to its lowest terms, thus:

$$\dfrac{\overset{18}{\cancel{36}}\times\overset{8}{\cancel{64}}\times\overset{12}{\cancel{84}}\times\overset{\overset{18}{90}}{\cancel{900}}}{\underset{\underset{7}{\cancel{56}}}{\cancel{560}}\times\underset{\cancel{5}}{\cancel{40}}\times\underset{7}{\cancel{49}}\times\underset{\cancel{7}}{\cancel{24}}}=\dfrac{18\times18}{7\times7}=\dfrac{324}{49}=6\dfrac{30}{49}$$

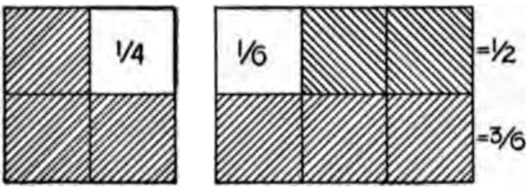
13. Common Fractions. The work outlined for the third year should be continued. It will be found that objective work in fractions will still be of value. The addition and subtraction of such fractions as $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{5}{6}$ may be taught if taught objectively. The children are not ready for much abstract work in fractions yet. The following diagrams for work with fractions will be suggestive and the teacher may often see an opportunity to use still other diagrams in a similar way.



RELATIVE VALUES OF FRACTIONS

$\frac{6}{8}\div\frac{1}{8}=6$, by inspection.
$\frac{6}{8}\div\frac{1}{4}=3$, by inspection.
$\frac{6}{8}\div\frac{3}{8}=2$, by inspection.
$\frac{6}{8}\div\frac{4}{8}=1\frac{1}{2}$, by inspection.
$\frac{6}{8}+\frac{1}{8}=8$, bv inspection.
$\frac{8}{8}\div\frac{4}{8}=2$, by inspection.
$\frac{8}{8}\div\frac{1}{2}=2$, by inspection.

By means of devices of this sort the pupil is led to ***measure*** one unit by another. He draws a line 8 inches long and divides it into eighths. He sees that two of these units make $\frac{1}{4}$ of the line, hence $\frac{2}{8}=\frac{1}{4}$; $\frac{4}{8}=\frac{1}{2}$; $\frac{6}{8}=\frac{3}{4}$.



The exercises in division may be postponed until the fifth grade, but ordinarily children of the fourth grade will learn to make these divisions. The pupil merely makes the measurements and ascertains the number of eighths in $\frac{6}{8}$, the number of fourths in $\frac{6}{8}$, etc. He does it objectively, by placing his measuring unit on the line. He will soon discover that $\frac{6}{8}\div\frac{1}{8}=6$, not merely because a line $\frac{6}{8}$ units long contains 6 measures of $\frac{1}{8}$ of a unit, but he will see that $\frac{6}{8}\times\frac{8}{1}=6$. In other words, to divide $\frac{6}{8}$ by $\frac{1}{8}$ is to multiply $\frac{6}{8}$ by $\frac{8}{1}$; hence the explanation for inverting the divisor. How many eighths in 1? Then, as there are 8 of them in 1, there will be $\frac{6}{8}$ times 8 in $\frac{6}{8}$, which is 6.

14. Denominate Numbers. While the so-called "spiral method" of teaching arithmetic has merit, the continuation of the spiral and the repetition of the topic should not occur so frequently as to produce a dislike on the part of the pupil. He needs to be "finishing something" all the time, and just as certainly he needs to be taking up new topics also. The fourth grade should mark the completion of denominate numbers and compound denominate numbers.

The objective measures, with abundance of practice in making actual measurements, should form the basis of much of the work. Pupils must be taught how to measure with a rule, and with a yardstick. The steel tape exactly one rod long, should be used for outdoor measurements.

(a) PROBLEMS IN LENGTH AND AREA. 1. The blackboard is $22\frac{1}{2}$ ft. long. How many yards long is it? How many rods?

2. One slate of the blackboard is 4 ft. long and 3 ft. wide. How many one-foot squares in it? Mark it off into squares and count them.

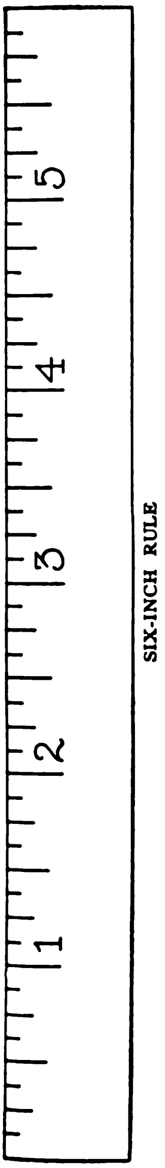
3. How do we find the number of square feet in a blackboard?

4. Do we multiply the length in feet by the width in feet? (Count the number of squares in one row and the number of rows. Notice that it is *square feet* you multiply by the *number* of such *rows* of square feet.)

5. Measure the width and height of a door in the school room. Reduce the odd inches to fraction of a foot. The door may be 2 ft. 8 in. by 6 ft. 8 in. This may be expressed $2\frac{2}{3}$ feet by $6\frac{2}{3}$ feet. Have the pupils make drawings showing the number of foot-squares and the number and kind of the fractional squares.

6. Measure the length and width of the schoolroom. How many yards long? How many yards wide? How many square feet of flooring will the room require?

7. Measure the school lot in rods. Have the pupils pace or step a certain line, as the width of the school house



on the outside. Measure this line and count the number of steps. What is the average length of the pupil's step?

8. I attach a pedometer to my belt and start on a journey. The pedometer is set to the measure of my average pace or step. Let the child see and handle a pedometer, if possible. How does it measure the distance travelled?

Note: A pedometer is a small instrument resembling a watch in its outward appearance. It has a mechanism that counts the number of steps taken by the carrier. If a person knows the average length of his steps, the pedometer enables him to calculate the distance he has travelled in a given time.

9. Measure the length of a garden plot, and find how many rows of corn 2 feet 8 inches apart may be planted on it.

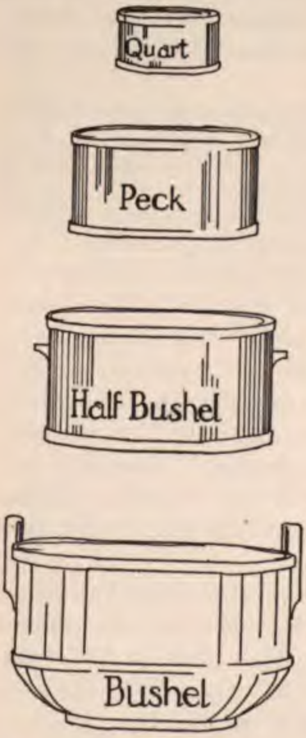
10. With a tape line measure the distance around an automobile tire. How many times will the wheel have to "go around" or revolve, to go one mile? (The pupil has learned the number of feet in a mile, number of yards in a mile, and number of rods in a mile.)

11. Have each pupil take many individual measurements of common objects whose length, or width, or height may be measured. Have pupils measure each other's heights and find differences in inches.

Much drill should be given in having pupils *estimate* lengths and distances. How far is it from the door to the street or road? How wide is the room? How high? How long is the line I have drawn upon the blackboard?

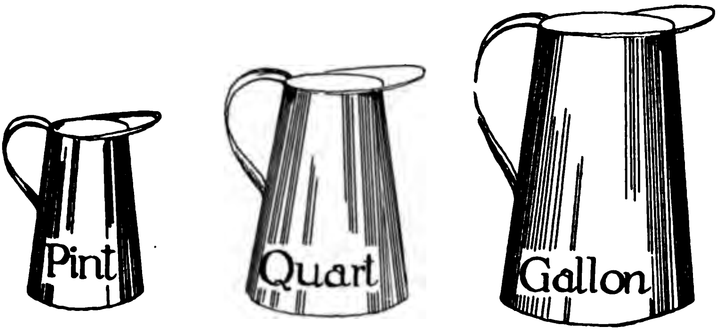
Similar methods should be followed in dry measure, avoirdupois measure, and liquid measure. These constitute about all the denominate measures the pupil needs, except time measure which requires a special method, as it does not deal with physical measurements of space or weight or bulk. Apothecaries measure need not be taught at all. Other tables formerly taught are usually omitted from modern texts.

(b) Dry Measure. In teaching dry measure the teacher should have a set of the usual measures — quart, half gallon or "small measure," peck and half bushel. The bushel measure is not often used because of its size or weight. If the school is supplied with sand for use in the lower grades or in teaching geography, have each pupil work out the table of relationships for himself instead of having him memorize meaningless tables.



DRY MEASURES

(c) Avoirdupois Weight. The weights in this table should be taught by the use of scales and the necessary weights. The pupils should be required to use the scales in weighing various objects and in "making up" problems for the class. That 16 ounces make one pound is about all the "table" they need to know, but they need to know how to use the scales, likewise a pair of balances. Have them learn how to use a pair of spring scales, and to test them by means of problems. Why are the balances more likely to remain accurate? What are steelyards? What are letter scales? What are the rates of postage on letters? On books? On merchandise? (What is merchandise?) On newspapers? What are the rates of foreign postage on letters? On books? On merchandise?



LIQUID MEASURE

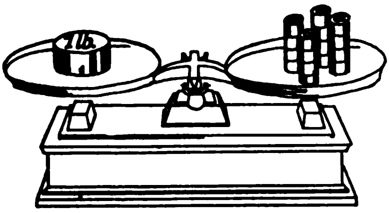
What is parcel post? What are the parcel postage rates on a book weighing 10 ounces and sent to a neighboring town? If it weighs 3 lb. 2 oz. what would the postage be? What would be the postage on the same book if sent to Grandma? Have the class go to the post office with various packages to be mailed and learn the zone and the rate. Ascertain the points to which your pupils and their families send most of their mail and then, with a *Parcel Post Table*, which your postmaster will gladly furnish you, determine the postal zone in which each place is located and have your pupils determine the parcel postage on various packages, real or imaginary. They may need, sometime, to drop a parcel into the mail when the office is not open, or into the mail box on the corner. The knowledge of parcel post rates would save them delay or possibly save them a trip to the post office.

The teacher can easily discover many other practical uses to which she may apply the knowledge of avoirdupois measure. In a farming community, she should teach her pupils the number of pounds in a bushel of wheat, clover seed, oats, rye, corn, barley, alfalfa, orchard grass, alsike, potatoes, onions, etc.

15. Farmers' Estimates. In a farming community children in the fourth school year should be taught how the animals on the farm are weighed. They should then be taught to examine closely every animal after it is weighed and associate its weight with the size and appearance of the animal so they may become more proficient in estimating the weights of animals. This is very valuable knowledge for one who is living on the farm. Many animals are bought and sold by "lump," that is, the farmer "lumps" the animal to the buyer — he estimates the weight. As the dealer has had more experience in such things, the farmer may often be cheated unless he has a knowledge of the weight of animals. Many times there are no scales in the neighborhood where farm animals may be weighed.

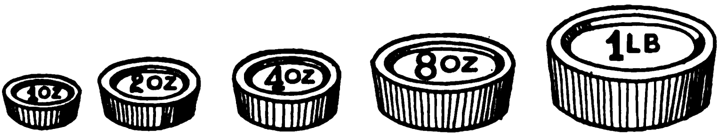
What is said above in regard to farm animals may be applied to estimating the amount of hay in a stack or in a mow, or the number of bushels of corn in a crib, although in this latter case a method of measurement may be applied. When we say there are 56 pounds in a bushel of corn, we mean that number of pounds of shelled corn — no cobs. But we usually buy the corn on the cob. We learn that it requires 70 pounds of corn on the cob to make a bushel when shelled, but this is only an approximation, as corn and cob differs often in the ratio of weights. If corn is not thoroughly dry it will require more corn and cob to make a bushel, so that in most states it requires 70 lb., up to December 1, and 68 lb. after that date. In Ohio the legal weight is 68 pounds the year through. But a man will get more corn for a bushel if he buys it from a crib in June than he will if he buys it in December. So the skill in *estimating* weights and measures is valuable. It may not be exact arithmetic but it is the arithmetic of practice.

To measure a crib of corn, we find the length, width, and height in feet and multiply these numbers together. This gives us the number of cubic feet in the crib. We divide this number by 2½ and we find approximately the number of bushels of shelled corn in the crib. Pupils should be required to measure the home cribs and wagon beds and rail pens in which corn may be kept and estimate the number of bushels. If a crib is not full of corn, it becomes necessary to explain by drawing how the quantity of corn in it may be measured. Find the length of the *slant* of the pile (not the slant height) and divide by 2 to find the length of this portion of the crib if the corn were held in place so it would reach the top.



THE STORE SCALES

Many people in the city as well as in the country need this knowledge. Likewise many people need to know what a "yard" of sand is, or a yard of dirt, or gravel, or stone. We mean by this a cubic yard — a pile in the shape of a cube, one yard each way. But gravel beds for hauling are not in the shape of a cubic yard. The pupil needs to know how long and wide and deep a load of sand should be to contain a "yard." He should be taught how to measure the length and width of the wagon bed used in hauling it, and then find out how *deep* the sand must be to make a yard. Could a team haul two yards? Or a yard and a half?



COMMON WEIGHTS

16. Practical Problems. There are hundreds of sources for good problems all around any school. The teacher should be resourceful enough to find these and utilize them. Here are a few problems in avoirdupois weight that may suggest others equally as good:

1. A farmer weighed his sacks of clover seed and found

their weights were 125 lb., 148 lb., 170 lb., 165 lb., and 158 lb. Deducting one pound for the weight of each sack, how many bushels of clover seed did he have?

2. A farmer threshed 1460 lb. of orchard grass seed. How much was it worth at $2.60 per bushel?

3. Mrs. Smith keeps an account of the butter she makes at each churning, and finds for one month the following weights: 3 lb. 4 oz.; 2 lb. 10 oz.; 3 lb. 6 oz.; 2 lb. 12 oz.; 3 lb. 7 oz.; 2 lb. 15 oz.; 5 lb. 4 oz.; 4 lb. 3 oz.; 3 lb. 9 oz. How much butter did she make that month?

4. George bought at the meat-market 3 lb. 4 oz. beefsteak at 20 cents a pound, and 2 lb. 12 oz. of roast at 16 cents a pound. How much did the meat cost?

5. Write five problems that are based on purchases at the grocery.

6. Write five problems that are based on purchases at the meat market.

7. Write five problems in weights based upon sales made by a farmer.

It would be difficult to place too much stress upon the practice required of the pupil in actual weighing of articles and the writing of the problems growing out of such weights.

Have each pupil bring five problems that grew out of real sales and purchases at home. These will differ widely and should be studied by the entire class.

There are so many excellent texts in arithmetic today that the teacher cannot find an excuse for not having constantly at hand an ample supply of problem-material based upon real life experience such as the pupils and their parents may experience daily. The life interest in these problems will help to sustain the pupils' interest in a subject that can be made so concrete and real in every lesson that the teacher should experience no trouble in maintaining an interest on the part of her pupils.

17. Reduction. As to reduction of numbers it should be said that in practical life there is not a very extensive need of knowledge of multiplication and division of compound denominate numbers. Therefore, the reduction from higher to lower denominations, as bushels to pecks, rods to inches, etc., and reduction from lower to higher denominations as pints to gallons, feet to miles, etc. will cover all practical needs. Rapid written drills in reduction should be given, such as the following:

1. In 5 lb. of butter, how many ounces?
2. How many ounces in 3 lb. 5 oz.?
3. What is the postage on a book weighing 2 lb. 3 oz.?
4. In 3 yd. 2 ft. how many feet?
5. In 5 yd. 2 ft. 6 in. how many inches?
6. How many pounds in 6 lb. 8 oz. of butter?
7. How many pounds in 5 lb. 3 oz. of candy?
8. How many pounds in 100 oz. of butter?
9. The blackboard is 3 yd. 2 ft. 8 in. long; how many inches long is it?
10. How many yards long is the above blackboard?
11. How many feet long is it?
12. How many yards in a spool of thread? How many feet?
13. How many yards in a roll of wall paper?
14. How many yards in a bolt of ribbon?
15. What part of a roll of wall paper is 6 yd.?
16. How many bushels in 124 pecks? 150 pecks?
17. How many bushels in 15 bu. 3 pk.?
18. How many pecks in 15 bu. 3 pk.?
19. Divide 120 bu. 3 pk. of wheat equally among three farmers.
20. Divide 8 gallons 3 quarts and 1 pint of berries equally among three berry pickers. Find two ways of making the division.
21. How many garden plots 6 feet wide and 10 feet long can you make out of a garden 100 feet long and 72 feet wide? Make the diagram.
22. A boy picked 24 quarts of blackberries in three hours, and sold them at 15 cents a quart. What did he earn per hour?

Weights and Measures to Be Remembered

1 bushel of wheat = 60 lb.
1 bushel of clover seed = 60 lb.
1 bushel of timothy seed = 60 lb.
1 bushel of orchard grass seed = 14 lb.
1 bushel of alfalfa seed = 60 lb.
1 bushel of beans = 60 lb.
1 bushel of shelled corn = 56 lb.
1 bushel of ear corn = 68 lb.
1 bushel of rye = 56 lb.
1 bushel of barley = 48 lb.
1 bushel of oats = 32 lb.
1 bushel of potatoes = 60 lb.
1 bushel of coal = 80 lb.
1 bushel of peaches = 48 lb.
1 bushel of apples = 50 lb.
1 bushel of onions = 50 lb.
1 bushel of sweet potatoes = 50 lb.
1 bushel of onion sets = 32 lb.
1 bushel of tomatoes = 56 lb.
1 bushel of peas = 60 lb.
1 bushel of dried peaches = 33 lb.
1 bushel of hominy = 60 lb.
1 bushel of bran = 20 lb.
1 bushel of corn meal = 50 lb.
1 bushel of buckwheat = 50 lb.
1 bushel of beets = 56 lb.
1 gallon of maple syrup = 11 lb.
1 bushel of lime = 70 lb.

FIFTH YEAR

18. Introduction. With the idea that it is best from the standpoint of interest to *finish* something in each grade and likewise take up the consideration of something *new* in each grade, the suggestion is made that the specific work of the fifth school year should be a study of common fractions and decimal fractions.

19. Reviews. It is always in order to review any subject which is in the nature of basic work for a new topic. Each new topic grows out of something that precedes it.

Factoring, greatest common divisor, and least common multiple should be reviewed at the beginning of the fifth year.

20. Greatest Common Divisor. The chief use of the greatest common divisor (G.C.D.) in this grade is in reducing fractions to their lowest terms. This process is necessary in order that fractions may be added or subtracted. For example, if we wish to add $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{5}{6}$, we must make them both fractions of the same *name*. We cannot add 3 bushels and 3 pecks until we make them both bushels or both pecks. The answer is $3\frac{3}{4}$ bushels, or it is 15 pecks — 12 pecks and 3 pecks. So it is with our problem in adding $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{5}{6}$. If they were both thirds or both sixths, we could add them. By objective illustration, folding and cutting paper, we lead the pupil to see that $\frac{2}{3}=\frac{4}{6}$. We now have to add $\frac{4}{6}$ and $\frac{5}{6}$, or 4 *parts* called sixths and 5 *parts* called sixths. The child early perceives that the sum is 9 sixths, written $\frac{9}{6}$.

Draw two circles, one divided into thirds and the other into sixths. Point out the $\frac{2}{3}$ of the one circle and the $\frac{5}{6}$ of the other. Divide the thirds into sixths. Now let the pupil add the sixths, or count the sixths in the two circles. The essential part in this objective process is the conversion of the two sets of parts into *parts* of the same size, although each fraction represents a different *number* of those equal parts — hence the terms *numerator* and *denominator*. To add two fractions it is necessary to make them both of the same *name*, give them the same *denominator*. Since the numerator shows the number of equal parts taken and the denominator the number of parts into which the unit has been divided, it will be seen that to add such fractions when reduced to a common denominator is to add their numerators, to find the total number of such equal parts in both fractions. In this case we could do it by inspection, or by the use of the drawing. We notice that the new denominator is the *smallest* number into which both denominators can be divided.

Suppose we wish to add $\frac{5}{12}$ and $\frac{4}{15}$. To find the smallest denominator the sum can have, we must find the smallest number divisible by 12 and 15. It will of course be some multiple of 15, since it is to be divisible by 15. Is it twice 15? No. Is it three times 15? No. Is it four times 15? Yes, because 60 is also divisible by 12.

But we must find some way to reach this result without the method of trial and error. We notice that 60 is a multiple of each denominator. The fractions to be added have been reduced to the lowest terms. We must then find the greatest common divisor that was used in reducing each fraction from 60 to its present form. To change 12ths to 60ths is to multiply the 12 by the quotient of 60 ÷ 12, or 5. Both numerator and denominator must be multiplied by the same number to preserve the value of the fraction. This can be demonstrated by means of the circles again: $\frac{5}{12}\times\frac{5}{5}=\frac{25}{60}$, and $\frac{4}{15}\times\frac{4}{4}=\frac{16}{60}$. The sum is $25+16$ or 41 sixtieths. But we must find a still simpler method of obtaining the 60.

By taking out of the 12 and 15, their greatest common divisor, we find it comparatively easy to find the smallest number (the least common multiple) into which 12 and 15 may be divided. $12=3\times 4$m $15=3\times 5$. We see that 3 is a factor common to both, since there is no other common factor, or divisor. Multiplying together the prime factors (the *un*common factors) we get $4\times 5=20$. But since 3 is a common factor, the smallest number divisible by 12 and 15 is 3×20 or 60.

Before going into detail with the work of reduction of fractions to common denominators, the pupil must understand both greatest common divisor and least common multiple. Aside from the changing of fractions to common denominators for the purpose of adding and subtracting them, one has very little need of G.C.D. and L.C.M. in the practical affairs of life.

21. Least Common Multiple. The method of finding the least common multiple (L.C.M.) by factoring is the only one pupils in the grammar grades will need to learn. Later, in high school, or when the subject may be pursued for its disciplinary value, the division method may be taught. Teachers need to know them both. Any text-book will afford the teacher illustrative problems and examples (demonstrations of the method) and it will not be necessary to go into detail here. However, the following method is simple enough and complete enough to answer all the needs in this grade:

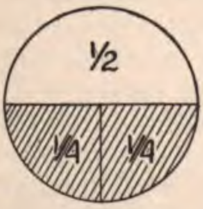
$$\begin{array}{r|rrrr} 2 & 12 & 18 & 24 & 30 \\ \hline 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 & 15 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \hline & 1 & 3 & 2 & 5 \end{array}$$

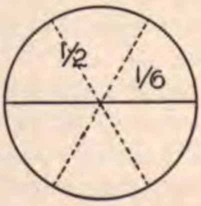
In this problem we may see the method of finding the G.C.D. and also the L.C.M. We find that the prime factor 2 is common to each of the four numbers. We find also that 3 is common to each. As these numbers, 2 and 3, are both prime and each factor may be taken out of 12, 18, 24 and 30, and no other factor is *common* to each of these numbers, the 2×3 must be the greatest (largest) common *factor* or divisor. Hence, 6 is the G.C.D. But we have already seen that the L.C.M. is the *product* of the G.C.D. by the remaining factors. We find that 2 is common to 2 and 4 in the third line of division, hence, those two numbers are not prime. The remaining factors being prime, there are no more common factors. By multiplying these together, $3 \times 2 \times 5 \times 2$, and by multiplying these again by the G.C.D. we find the L.C.M. or 360, the smallest number divisible by 12, 18, 24, and 30

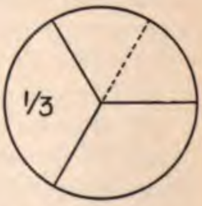
22. Concrete Illustrations. COMMON FRACTIONS. The pupils in the fifth grade are now ready for their lessons on common fractions. Have them read the following fractions: $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{4}{5}$, $\frac{5}{6}$, $\frac{6}{7}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, $\frac{8}{9}$, $\frac{9}{10}$. Have them make some kind of drawing to picture each fraction. This process of visualization is fundamentally important. Success in the handling of fractions in the various processes in which fractions are used, will depend largely on the *meaning* each fractional number has for the pupil.

Have the pupils draw a straight line 10 inches long. Divide the line into inches, half inches, and quarter inches. Impress upon the pupil that 10 is the *one* thing or unit to be divided into *parts*; 1 inch $= \frac{1}{10}$ of the line, 2 inches $= \frac{2}{10}$ of the line, etc. Now proceed to have them find $\frac{1}{2}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{5}$ of the line, $\frac{2}{5}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{5}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$ of the line, $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of the line, $\frac{3}{5}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of the line, $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{8}{10}$ of the line, and scores of other exercises that may be based upon this drawing. With each problem the pupil is to mark off on the line the solution, thus: $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$ of the line would be $\frac{1}{2}$ of 2 inches or 1 inch; $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{8}{10}$ of the line would be $\frac{1}{4}$ of 8 inches or 2 inches, since $\frac{1}{10}$ is 1 inch $\frac{8}{10}$ would be 8 inches. He learns to visualize what to him otherwise would be meaningless jargon. As this 10-inch line is divided into quarter inches, the pupil will soon discover that $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of the line is $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in length, and many other interesting fractional parts may be written out objectively. He now begins to know what is meant by compound fractions.

23. Reading Fractions. Thorough drills on the reading of proper fractions and improper fractions should be given until the pupil clearly visualizes the difference between $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{4}{3}$, $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{5}{2}$, and can *think each fraction* in its relation to unity. Here it will be necessary to exercise great caution to steer clear of *ratios merely*, for the pupil is likely to become confused and think of ratios as fractions. Use for drills only such exercises as will fix in the pupil's mind the fact that a fraction is one or more of the equal parts into which *one* may be divided — it may be one foot, one







mile, one apple, one day, but it is always something that may be thought of as *unity*. The 10-inch line above is *one line*. The same principle as the one illustrated may be shown in a limited way by resorting to the circle as the *unit* to be divided. Draw the circle, divide it into halves, fourths, and eighths. Now $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ can be recognized visually as $\frac{1}{4}$; $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ can be seen to be $\frac{1}{8}$; $\frac{1}{8}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ can be seen as $\frac{1}{16}$ by dividing the circle into 16ths. These drills on visualization are of sufficient importance as to require many days.

24. Writing Fractions. When the pupils are able to recognize at sight and read any simple or compound fraction likely to occur in practical problems, they are ready to write fractions from dictation. We rarely use fractions with large denominators, hence there is no good reason for teaching such improbable fractions as $\frac{689}{795}$. Our method of writing decimal fractions will take much better care of all such values and at the same time will express more meaning to the reader. For example: 6.589 will express the value more certainly than $6\frac{889}{1000}$ or $6\frac{587}{989}$. We are accustomed to seeing $6.58 as a written expression; hence the decimal form is clear.

Ordinarily we do not need to use any common fraction whose denominator is larger than 20, which means that in practical affairs we do not need to divide any *unity* into more than 20 equal parts. Fractions to write from dictation:

$$\frac{1}{2},\ \frac{1}{3},\ \frac{1}{4},\ \frac{1}{5},\ \frac{1}{6},\ \frac{1}{7},\ \frac{1}{8},\ \frac{1}{9},\ \frac{1}{10}.$$

$$\frac{2}{3},\ \frac{3}{4},\ \frac{2}{5},\ \frac{3}{5},\ \frac{4}{5},\ \frac{5}{6},\ \frac{2}{7},\ \frac{3}{7},\ \frac{5}{7},\ \frac{6}{7},\ \frac{3}{8},\ \frac{5}{8},\ \frac{7}{8},\ \frac{2}{9},\ \frac{4}{9},\ \frac{5}{9},\ \frac{7}{9},\ \frac{3}{10},\ \frac{7}{10},\ \frac{9}{10}.$$

These fractions are all in their lowest terms. Let the pupil see that these fractions cannot be changed in form, except by making the denominators larger, and to do so would require multiplication of both numerator and denominator by the same number.

25. Addition. In the addition of fractions, the matter of reduction to common denominators should be a subject of frequent drill. Not often in actual practice will a man find it necessary to resort to the long and tedious method of reduction by finding the L.C.M. of the several divisors, and raising each fraction to one whose denominator is this L.C.M. The following exercises illustrate the sight drill referred to above:

$\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}=\frac{5}{6}$; $\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{4}=\frac{9}{20}$; $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{5}=\frac{8}{15}$; $\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{6}=\frac{11}{30}$; $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{6}=\frac{8}{12}$; $\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{3}=\frac{7}{12}$; $\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{2}=\frac{7}{10}$.

In each problem it will be noted (1) that there are but two fractions to be added; (2) that the numerator of each is 1; (3) that the sum has for numerator the *sum* of the two denominators and for denominator the *product* of the two denominators. The teacher should explain and illustrate the principles upon which this rule is based, or from which this general statement is evolved. The product of the denominators is their L.C.M. if they are prime to each other. The new numerators are found by multiplying the numerator by the same number as that used in raising the denominator. When the problem is solved in detail the pupil sees why the shorter method may be used.

$\frac{1}{3}+\frac{3}{4}+\frac{5}{6}=$ what?
$\frac{3}{5}+\frac{7}{8}+\frac{3}{4}=$ what?
$\frac{2}{3}+\frac{5}{6}=$ what?
$\frac{3}{4}+\frac{7}{8}=$ what?
$\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{5}=$ what?
$\frac{3}{4}+\frac{2}{5}+\frac{3}{8}=$ what?
$\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{5}=$ what?
$\frac{3}{4}+\frac{4}{5}+\frac{5}{6}+\frac{6}{7}+\frac{7}{8}=$ what?

If the pupil in the fifth grade can solve all such problems as those above and do it with unerring accuracy, he can add any set of fractions that any of the actual situations in life will ever present to him. The only other need will arise when he undertakes to solve theoretical problems, or problems in physics, engineering, or some phase of higher mathematics. Even then, fractional values will almost always be expressed decimally and not in the form of common fractions. The common fraction is not practical in such cases. For example, who knows by inspection which is the *larger* fraction — has a value nearer unity — of the following sets of fractions?

$$\frac{37859}{87500} \text{ or } \frac{2758}{6375} \text{ ?}$$

$$\frac{3758}{7985} \text{ or } \frac{17857}{47575} \text{ ?}$$

The only way to find out is to reduce them to common denominators — a very tedious process — or reduce them to decimal form. In the latter case it would usually not be necessary to reduce the fractions farther than to the second decimal place. It would be well, then, under the head of the study of decimals in the sixth grade to give the pupils ample practice in such reduction.

Care must be exercised in teaching the pupils a brief form of addition other than the one by inspection, as in $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}$ equal $\frac{5}{6}$. Example: $\frac{2}{3}+\frac{3}{4}+\frac{4}{5}+\frac{5}{6}=$what?

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r|cccc} 2 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{4}{5} & \frac{5}{6} \\ \hline 3 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 3 \\ \hline & 1 & 2 & 5 & 1 \end{array}$$

$2\times3\times2\times5=60$, L.C.M. of denominators, or the common denominator.

Have pupils note that the common denominator is always the *largest* denominator or some multiple of it. Will each denominator divide 6? Will each one of them "go into" 12? No, for 5 would not divide 12. Would 18 be divisible by each denominator? No, for the same reason. Would 24 be divisible by each? Would the product of the two largest denominators, which are prime to each other, be divisible by each denominator? In this way it will be seen that the inspection process may be longer than the process of factoring. So we continue the solution:

$\frac{2}{3}=$how many 60ths? $60\div3\times2=40$, the new denominator; hence $\frac{40}{60}$.

$\frac{3}{4}=$how many 60ths? $60\div4=15$; $15\times3=45$; hence, $\frac{45}{60}$.

$\frac{4}{5}=$how many 60ths? $60\div5=12$; $12\times4=48$; hence, $\frac{48}{60}$.

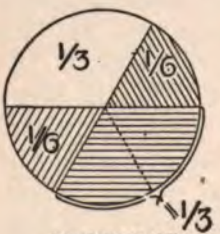
$\frac{5}{6}=$how many 60ths? $60\div6=10$; $10\times5=50$; hence, $\frac{50}{60}$.

Hence, $\frac{40}{60}+\frac{45}{60}+\frac{48}{60}+\frac{50}{60}=\frac{183}{60}$, or $3\frac{1}{20}$, the sum.

26. Subtraction. The same general principles are followed in teaching the subtraction of fractions. Again by inspection fractions may be reduced to a common denominator and the difference between their numerators found. To subtract $\frac{1}{3}$ from $\frac{1}{2}$: in $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{3}$, we find the fractions equal to $\frac{3}{6}$ and $\frac{2}{6}$, hence $\frac{3}{6}-\frac{2}{6}=\frac{1}{6}$. When the fractions are once reduced, the denominator is regarded as merely the name of the numbers and the numerators represent the *number* of equal parts, hence, the subtraction is one of numerators only. This may be nicely illustrated by means of diagrams or drawings of two circles.

To subtract $\frac{1}{3}$ from $\frac{1}{2}$ and have a *measure* of the remainder, we must divide the circles into *parts* of equal size. By inspection, we see that these parts would be sixths. By applying circle *B* upon *A*, we see that $\frac{1}{3}$ of *B* would cover $\frac{2}{6}$ of *A* and leave $\frac{1}{6}$ of the whole circle as the part of $\frac{1}{2}$ of the whole circle remaining. Hence, $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{3}=\frac{1}{6}$ of the whole circle.

27. Division of Fractions. By the use of circles it may be shown objectively that to divide one fraction by another is merely to find how many times one fraction contains another. In dividing $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{3}$ it is first necessary to reduce them both to 6ths. The problem now becomes one of dividing 3 by 2, for we want to see how many times 2 *sixths* there are in 3 *sixths*, which is expressed thus: $3 \div 2 = \frac{3}{2}$ *sixths*, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ *sixths*. But since we wish only to know how many times $\frac{2}{6}$ is contained in $\frac{3}{6}$, the answer is $\frac{3}{2}$ or $1\frac{1}{2}$.



DIVISION OF FRACTIONS

This method of division of fractions by reducing them to a common denominator is comparatively easy to explain because it can be shown objectively. It next becomes necessary for the teacher to call the attention of the pupils to what actually takes place in such division. In dividing $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{3}$, we notice that 3 (sixths) is divided by 2 (sixths), or

$\frac{3}{2}$, which is the same as $\frac{1}{2}\times\frac{3}{1}$. Thus we find that in division of fractions we may ***invert the divisor*** and multiply the fraction to be divided by it. To explain this further to the class, show them that we first find how many thirds in 1, which is 3. Since it is $\frac{1}{2}$ of a circle that is to be divided into thirds, we need to know how many thirds in $\frac{1}{2}$. Since in 1 or a whole circle there are 3 thirds, there will be only $\frac{1}{2}$ as many in $\frac{1}{2}$ of a circle as in a whole circle, which is

$$3 \div 2, \text{ or } 1\tfrac{1}{2}.$$

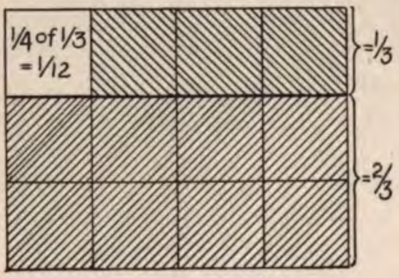
Therefore, we invert the divisor to find how many times that divisor is contained in 1. When we find how many of such fractional parts there would be in unity or *all* of anything, we need only to multiply this number by the number to be divided.

In dividing $\frac{2}{3}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ we may use either method. $\frac{2}{3}=\frac{8}{12}$; $\frac{3}{4}=\frac{9}{12}$; 8 divided by $9=\frac{8}{9}$. We reduce to a common denominator and then use the numerators as the numbers to be divided. But to find how many $\frac{3}{4}$ths there are in 1 or a whole circle, we may divide the circle objectively and we find that we may take out of a circle the $\frac{3}{4}$ of it and there will be $\frac{1}{4}$ left, or $\frac{1}{3}$ enough to enable us to take out another $\frac{3}{4}$. Hence, in a whole circle there are $1\frac{1}{3}$ times $\frac{3}{4}$ of the circle. This may be shown by the illustration. But $1\frac{1}{3}$ times equals $\frac{4}{3}$ times. Hence, there are $\frac{4}{3}$ times $\frac{3}{4}$ in a *whole* circle, or *all* of anything. If there are $\frac{4}{3}$ times the $\frac{3}{4}$ in 1 circle, in $\frac{2}{3}$ of a circle there will be $\frac{2}{3}$ as much as in a whole circle, or $\frac{2}{3}$ times $\frac{4}{3}$, which is $\frac{8}{9}$, the result of dividing $\frac{2}{3}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$. Again it will be seen that it is unnecessary, except for the purposes of illustration, to reduce the fractions to 12ths, for $\frac{2}{3}\div\frac{3}{4}=\frac{2}{3}\times\frac{4}{3}$, or $\frac{8}{9}$.

When pupils have been taught to invert the divisor and multiply, they will frequently find that the multiplication may be shortened by cancellation. This should be taught and insisted upon.

28. Multiplication of Fractions. To multiply any quantity is to find the sum of a given number of the same quantity, as in $3+3+3+3$, we find how many four 3's are.

Likewise, when we multiply $\frac{2}{3}$ by 5, we want to find the sum of $\frac{2}{3}+\frac{2}{3}+\frac{2}{3}+\frac{2}{3}+\frac{2}{3}$, which is the same as to find the sum of 5 twos for the new numerator. The point of difficulty to the child is to see that $\frac{2}{3}$ is merely the *measure of a certain quantity*, just as 2 may be. When he understands that point, it is comparatively easy for him to see that 5 times $\frac{2}{3}$ is $\frac{10}{3}$.



MULTIPLICATION OF FRACTIONS

The use of the word *of* as a sign of multiplication should be explained at this point. When we ask for $\frac{1}{2}$ of anything, we mean to *divide* that thing into two equal parts. Hence $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ would be the division of $\frac{1}{2}$ into two equal parts. By means of two circles again, we illustrate the $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ to be $\frac{1}{4}$. Hence, $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{2}{3}=\frac{1}{3}$; $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}=\frac{1}{4}$. But we can see that by cancellation, counting the *of* to be a sign of multiplication, we obtain the same result objectively. Here are illustrative problems:

1. $\frac{5}{13}$ of $\frac{13}{25}$ of $\frac{1}{5}=$?
2. $\frac{2}{3}$ of $12\times\frac{3}{4}$ of $16\times\frac{4}{5}$ of $20=$?
3. $\frac{4}{5}$ of $18\times\frac{3}{8}$ of $20\times\frac{4}{9}$ of $27=$?
4. $2\frac{1}{2}\times3\frac{1}{3}\times\frac{18}{25}$ of $\frac{3}{7}$ of $\frac{1}{5}\times4\frac{1}{6}=$?

Drill in the multiplication of one common fraction by another should be followed by frequent drills in cancellation. Here, again, an accurate knowledge of factors will be necessary. The teacher will experience no difficulty in finding an abundance of problem-material in modern text-books in arithmetic.

The practical applications of multiplication of fractions are numerous. In counting the cost of articles purchased at the grocery store, dry goods store, meat market, and other places it is usually necessary to multiply one mixed number by another. This step should be taught next.

29. Mixed Numbers. A mixed number is composed of a whole number and a common fraction. One method used in handling mixed numbers requires the reduction of each mixed number to the form of an improper fraction, as $3\frac{3}{4}=\frac{15}{4}$. If one pound of sugar cost $8\frac{1}{3}$ cents, how much would 30 pounds cost? Solution by the suggested method of cancellation: $\overset{10}{\cancel{30}}\times\frac{25}{\cancel{3}}=\$2.50$. But in such a case a much better method is to multiply the 30 by $8\frac{1}{3}$, thus:

$$\begin{array}{r} 30 \\ .08\frac{1}{3} \\ \hline 2.40 \\ 10 \\ \hline 2.50 \end{array}$$

This is explained to the pupil, who says, "8 times 30 is 240, and $\frac{1}{3}$ times 30 is 10; hence, $8\frac{1}{3}$ times 30 is 250 cents or \$2.50." Technically 30 is the multiplier instead of $8\frac{1}{3}$, but it is more convenient to use the smaller number as multiplier. The class should be given frequent exercises involving one mixed number, either as multiplier or as multiplicand. Many problems may be found in text-books, but the pupils will enjoy making such problems.

The next step should embody explanations and drills in multiplying one mixed number by another. Again, each number may be reduced to an improper fraction, but the method of the business world is better.

$$3\frac{3}{4}\times 6\frac{1}{4}=\text{what?}$$

Solution. 3 times $6=18$; 3 times $\frac{1}{4}=\frac{3}{4}$; $\frac{3}{4}$ times $6=4\frac{1}{2}$; $\frac{3}{4}$ times $\frac{1}{4}=\frac{3}{16}$; hence $18+\frac{3}{4}+4\frac{1}{2}+\frac{3}{16}=22+\frac{3}{4}+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{3}{16}$ or $1\frac{7}{16}$, or $23\frac{7}{16}$. In a business transaction we call this 23 instead of $23\frac{7}{16}$, because $\frac{7}{16}$ is less than $\frac{1}{2}$. Were the product $23\frac{9}{16}$, we would call the product 24, because $\frac{9}{16}$ is more than $\frac{1}{2}$. If it were $23\frac{8}{16}$, we would also call the product 24, for $\frac{1}{2}$ or more than $\frac{1}{2}$ is counted as 1.

In actual business, the fractions $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ are about all that are ever used in calculating the cost of articles. If the value is less than $\frac{1}{2}$¢ it is ordinarily dropped and if $\frac{1}{2}$¢ or more, but less than 1¢, it is counted as 1¢. In writing numbers with $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ attached, the method in business is to write the $\frac{1}{2}$ as fourths, and use only the numerators of the fractions, written as exponents are written, thus: 2^1, 3^2, 4^2, etc., mean $2\frac{1}{4}$, $3\frac{1}{2}$, $4\frac{1}{2}$, etc. Let the pupils add these numbers for practice by writing them in a vertical column and adding them without writing out the fractions:

3^2
4^1
6^2
7^1
8^1
9^2
5^2
4^2
9^1

24^2
36^2
41^1
82^2
85^1
94^2
87^2
76
89^2

37^2
82^1
87
92^2
85
81^2
90^2
76^1
70^2

64^1
65^2
66^1
67^2
68^1
69^2
70^1
71^2
72^1

108^2
104^2
103
109^2
105^1
107^2
109
105^2
103^2

30. Problems. 1. One pound of steak costs $18\frac{1}{2}$ cents; what will $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb. cost?

2. $37\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{4} =$ what?

3. $42\frac{1}{2}$ yards of calico at $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents a yard will cost how much?

4. I bought the following bill of goods:

$3\frac{1}{2}$ lb. raisins @ $8\frac{1}{3}$¢
3 cans of corn @ $12\frac{1}{2}$¢
$4\frac{1}{3}$ lb. bacon @ $22\frac{1}{2}$¢

What was the amount of my bill?

5. $125\frac{1}{4} \times 37\frac{1}{2} =$ what?

6. 145 bu. 3 pk. wheat will cost how much at $\$1\frac{1}{4}$ per bu.?

7. How many square yards in a floor $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide by $15\frac{3}{4}$ feet long?

8. A cement sidewalk is 30 in. wide and 20 ft. 8 in. long.

How many square feet in the sidewalk? How much did it cost at 16½ cents a square foot?

9. A garden plot is 18 ft. 8 in. long and 5 ft. 6 in. wide. How many square feet in it?

10. In the manual training class Samuel used a board 12 feet 8 inches long and 10 inches wide in making a table top. How many feet of lumber did he use?

31. Vocational Problems. In this grade pupils are interested in the activities about them. Now is the time to have them study the various occupations of the grown-ups around them. Suggest, at first, that each pupil make a close observation of the work of those of the family who are at home or in the shop or in the store or in the mill or in the office or on the farm. Have each pupil watch for real problems in the daily experiences of those about them. What use does mother ever make of arithmetic? Did she use arithmetic at all today? What were the problems? Write them down in your note book for use at school. Did she sell any butter or eggs or chickens or fruit or vegetables today? Did she buy anything today? Make out the bill for the articles sold. Did she measure any room for a drugget? Did she measure any room to have papered? What table or tables of denominate numbers did she need? Did she make any butter? How much did it weigh when ready for the market or the customer? Did she do any crochet work? Did she need any arithmetic in doing it?

Did father buy anything today? Who keeps father's accounts? What are receipts? What are expenditures? Did father sell anything today? What prices did he receive? What is the market price of hogs today? What kind of hogs bring the best price today? What is the local market price for beef cattle today? For lambs? For calves? What is the market price of wheat today? Corn? Oats? Barley? Clover seed? Timothy seed? Timothy hay? Clover hay? Mixed hay? What is No. 1 Timothy? What is the market price of potatoes today? Clip from the daily newspaper the market reports covering the articles mentioned above. Preserve in some permanent form the weekly markets each week for one year, or the Wednesday markets for one year, so that comparisons may be made and fluctuations studied. These lists may be pasted in a school scrap book.

GROCERY PRICE LIST

	Cost at Wholesale	Selling Price
Mocha coffee, per pound	$ .25	$ .32
Java coffee, per pound	.33	.40
Tea (gunpowder), per pound	.50	.80
Crackers, per pound	.06½	.09
Cinnamon, per pound	.30	.40
Black pepper, per pound	.17	.30
Ivory soap, per 100 bar box	4.00	bar .04
Fels-naphtha, per 100 bar box	4.10	bar .05
Corn meal, per 100 pounds	1.50	lb. .02½
Salt (100 sacks per bbl.), per bbl.	1.90	2 sacks .05
Graham flour (196 lb. to a bbl.)	bbl. 3.90	lb. .03
Winter wheat flour (196 lb. to a bbl.)	bbl. 5.15	bbl. 6.25
Spring wheat flour (196 lb. to a bbl.)	bbl. 6.20	bbl. 7.50
Straight grade flour (196 lb. to a bbl.)	bbl. 4.80	bbl. 6.00
Baking powder, per doz. 1-lb. cans	2.40	can .25
Canned corn, per doz. 1-lb. cans	.96	can .10
Canned tomatoes, per doz. 1-lb. cans	1.44	can .15
Canned peaches, per doz. 1-lb. cans	2.28	can .25
Canned peas, per doz. 1-lb. cans	1.68	can .20
Canned salmon, per doz. 1-lb. cans	2.28	can .24

Prices of groceries change from time to time and are different in different places. Make problems using the prices in your local papers. The following problems use the price list here given.

When the pupils have been sufficiently instructed on these points, they should be taught how to write concrete problems. They should become interested in a great variety of activities, not herein mentioned, and should be taught to be looking for problem-material everywhere. When they have acquired the ability to formulate problems worth while, these should take the place of those in the text-book. Here are a few suggested problems based upon vocational subjects:

1. Mrs. H. A. Jones, of Farmville, sold during the month of April 48 dozen eggs at 24 cents; 20 spring fries at $6.00 per dozen; 20 lb. 8 oz. butter at 28 cents. What were her receipts for each? Her total receipts? Her average receipts per day? Make up the entry to write in her account book under Receipts.

2. A farmer built a corn crib 18 feet long, 10 feet high to the square, and 8 feet wide, inside measurements. How many bushels of ear corn will it hold?

3. The above crib was supported by six concrete pillars to make it rat-proof. The pillars were made of 12-inch sewer tile costing 60 cents each, filled 3 feet deep with concrete. The sand, gravel, and cement required to make the concrete cost $2.50. The labor cost $1.50. How much did the crib foundation cost?

4. A farmer installed a gasoline engine for making his own electric lights, pumping the water needed for house and barn, running a washing machine, cream separator, and churn, for $100; a storage battery and wire connections, with switchboard, for $125; a bathroom with necessary water connections, septic tank, and drain, for $175. What did these improvements cost him?

5. Mr. John Washington had certain repairs made to his automobile; a magneto for $15.00; a carburetor for $8.50; 2 tires 34 by 4, at $18.75; 3 inner tubes at $3.60; oil and grease for $1.25; painting the car, $20. What did the repairs and supplies cost?

6. Make out the bill to John Washington and receipt it.

7. The average production per acre in the United States for various farm products is as follows: Wheat, 14 bu.; oats, 28.6 bu.; corn, 29.4 bu.; potatoes, 85 bu.; cotton, $\frac{1}{3}$ bale; timothy, 1.1 tons. If land that will produce an average crop of corn is worth $5.00 an acre cash rent, how much should land be worth that will produce 100 bu. of corn per

acre? Is the difference in amount of corn produced on each acre due only to the difference in soils?

8. The upper 8 inches of average soil in Ohio contains 3050 pounds of nitrogen, 4200 pounds of phosphorus, and 16,400 pounds of potassium per acre. If phosphorus is worth 5 cents a pound, nitrogen 15 cents a pound, and potassium 5 cents a pound, what is the value of the whole amount of these elements in an acre of average Ohio soil?

9. What is the value of a ton of fertilizer containing 160 lb. phosphoric acid, 40 lb. nitrogen, and 40 lb. of potash? (This is what is known as an 8-2-2-fertilizer.) When the pupil has studied percentage he may be expected to know that this means 8% phosphoric acid in a ton or 2000 pounds, 20% nitrogen in 2000 pounds, and 2% potash in 2000 pounds — hence the numbers 160 lb., 40 lb., and 40 lb.

10. What is the money value of a ton of fertilizer that analyzes 8-4-2? The weights would be 160 lb., 80 lb., and 40 lb., respectively.

11. I purchased a lot 66 ft. wide and 198 ft. deep, for $480. What was the price per front foot? What was the price per square rod? At this rate what would an acre of land be worth?

12. I purchased the north ½ of the northwest ¼ of a section of land for $50.00 an acre. How much did I pay? Draw a diagram of the section of land showing the tract I bought.

13. How many posts will be required to enclose my little farm if the posts are placed 16½ feet apart?

14. If fencing wire be worth 42 cents a rod what will the wire cost to fence my tract, provided two sides of it lie along tracts owned by neighbors who agree to pay for their shares of the fence?

15. What will it cost to build 100 rods of fence if the items of expense are as follows: Two end posts at $1.25; 4 braces at 25 cents each; fence posts a rod apart at 26 cents each; fencing wire at 45 cents a rod; setting end posts at 25 cents each; setting other posts and stretching and stapling the wire at 19 cents a rod.

16. A, B, C, and D own a store together, valued at \$24,000. A owns $\frac{1}{6}$, B owns $\frac{1}{4}$, and C owns $\frac{1}{3}$, and D owns the remainder. What part does D own and what is his share in the store worth?

17. The distance from Toledo to Bowling Green, Ohio, is 24 miles. How long will it require a train to go from Toledo to Bowling Green at the rate of 40 miles an hour?

18. If you can walk 4 miles an hour, how long would it take you to walk from one city to the other and return?

19. If an automobile makes 18 miles an hour, how long will be required to make the round trip? How long to walk one way and return in an automobile?

20. A man makes \$2500 a year. If $\frac{2}{5}$ of this income is from a farm, $\frac{1}{5}$ from a store, and the balance is his salary teaching school, what is his salary?

32. Sources for Problem-Material. The teacher should not experience any difficulty in finding a great variety of vocational problems from the activities of the community about the school. There are the farmer, the farmer's wife, the dairyman, the gardener, the berry picker, the fruit vender, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the tinner, the grocer, the butcher, the baker, the barber, the veterinary, the physician, the lawyer, the day-laborer, the plumber, the steam engineer, the civil engineer, the contractor, the teamster, the postmaster, the clerk, the school teacher, the minister, the ice man, the book agent, the cement worker, the painter, the brick mason, the stone mason, the printer, the publisher, the newsboy, the huckster, the mail carrier, the garage man and many others who may be found in almost any community. Why go to an old, dry book for problems when hundreds of them are to be solved every day by the men and women who constitute the community?

In the succeeding grades a more extensive range of vocational problems may be taught. With the exception of the use of frequent drills in abstract number processes which it will be necessary to continue until the close of the sixth grade at least, and the possible introduction of decimals by writing them and reading them and taking them from dictation, the preceding pages will cover sufficient ground for the fifth grade.

33. Drill Exercises. The following exercises are suggested for purpose of drill in this grade:

1. $3+4+5-3\div 3=$ what?
2. $4\times 6-48\div 12+32\div 8\div 3+8\div 4\times 3=$ what?
3. $3+4-5+6-3+8\times 9-3\times 8\div 6=$ what?
4. $7\times 8-6+36-25\div 3=$ what?
5. $987\times 651\div 91=$ what?
6. $46\times 16\div 54\times 9\div 36\times 48\div 24=$ what?
7. $12\times 4\div 8-(50\div 25\times 2)+15\times 2\times 3\div 6-10=$ what?
8. $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{6}=$ what?
9. $\dfrac{4\frac{1}{6}}{8\frac{1}{3}}\times\dfrac{12\frac{1}{2}}{6\frac{1}{4}}=$ what?
10. $\frac{2}{3}+\frac{3}{4}-\frac{5}{6}+\frac{7}{8}\times\frac{4}{21}\div\frac{3}{4}=$ what?
11. $96\div 16\times 3+12\div 3-3\frac{1}{2}\times 2=$ what?
12. $6\times 7\div 14+5\times 2\times 3-8\times 5\div 4-3\times 6\times 5\div 3-$
    $5\times 4\times 0\times 6+14\div 2\times 6\div 3=$ what?
13. $6\times 7\div 14+5\times 2\times 3-8\times 5\div 4-3\times 6\times 5\div 3-$
    $5\times 4\times 0\times 6+14\div(2\times 6\div 3)=$ what?
14. $16+12+14-15\div(3\times 3)\times[(4+5-3)\div 2]=$ what?
15. $108-8\div 20\times 40-25\times 8=$ what?
16. $\frac{3}{4}+\frac{8}{9}+\frac{7}{16}+\frac{3}{28}+\frac{48}{35}+\frac{3}{4}+\frac{5}{13}=$ what?
17. $12\frac{1}{2}\times 6\frac{1}{4}\times 3\frac{1}{8}\times\frac{3}{25}\times\frac{12}{50}=$ what?
18. $\dfrac{\frac{1}{2}\text{ of }\frac{3}{8}\text{ of }\frac{6}{7}\text{ of }3\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{3}{4}\text{ of }\frac{6}{7}\text{ of }\frac{5}{12}\text{ of }\frac{7}{8}}=$ what?
19. $\dfrac{(3+\frac{1}{3})\times(4+\frac{1}{5})}{6\frac{1}{4}\times\frac{3}{25}}=$ what?
20. $6\frac{1}{4}+7\frac{1}{2}+8\frac{3}{4}+9\frac{1}{2}=$ what?

Such problems as Nos. 18 and 19 are not likely to occur in any actual situations in life, but each step in the several processes is a practical one. For example, $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{3}{8}$ is a practical problem, and the entire problem is useful in teaching the use of the preposition *of* as a sign of multiplication.

SIXTH YEAR

34. The Aim. Following the general policy indicated in Volume II, and in the preceding discussion of the work in grades four and five, namely, to *complete something* in each grade and also to begin the study of *something new* in each grade, it is the aim of the course in the sixth grade to review common fractions and to introduce and master decimal fractions. It should not be again necessary to spend much time on the four fundamental operations in arithmetic, nor on cancellation, factoring, L.C.M., G.C.D., or operations with common fractions, except to show the relation between common fractions and decimal fractions.

35. Decimals. The work of the year should begin with reviews to test the knowledge and skill of the pupils touching the work of the fifth year. No one can say just how much time this should require. The conversion of certain common fractions to equivalent decimal fractions should be thoroughly taught.

(a) EQUAL PARTS OF 100.

$\frac{3}{10} = .3$; $\frac{2}{10} = .2$; $\frac{3}{10} = .5$, etc.

$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{10} = .5$; $\frac{1}{4} = \frac{25}{100} = .25$, etc.

$\frac{1}{8} = \frac{125}{1000} = .125$; $\frac{3}{8} = \frac{375}{1000} = .375$, etc.

$\frac{1}{6}$ of $100 = 16\frac{2}{3}$; hence, $\frac{1}{6} = \dfrac{16\frac{2}{3}}{100}$ or $.16\frac{2}{3}$

$\frac{1}{8}$ of $100 = 12\frac{1}{2}$; hence, $\frac{1}{8} = \dfrac{12\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ or $.12\frac{1}{2}$ or $.125$

$\frac{1}{3} = \dfrac{3\frac{1}{3}}{10} = .3\frac{1}{3}$; $\frac{1}{9} = \dfrac{1\frac{1}{9}}{10} = .1\frac{1}{9}$

$\frac{1}{2}$ of $100 = 50$ $\qquad\qquad$ $\frac{2}{3}$ of $100 = 66\frac{2}{3}$

$\frac{1}{3}$ of $100 = 33\frac{1}{3}$ $\qquad\qquad$ $\frac{3}{4}$ of $100 = 75$

$\frac{1}{4}$ of $100=25$
$\frac{1}{5}$ of $100=20$
$\frac{1}{6}$ of $100=16\frac{2}{3}$
$\frac{1}{7}$ of $100=14\frac{2}{7}$
$\frac{1}{8}$ of $100=12\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{9}$ of $100=11\frac{1}{9}$
$\frac{1}{10}$ of $100=10$
$\frac{1}{12}$ of $100=8\frac{1}{3}$
$\frac{1}{16}$ of $100=6\frac{2}{3}$

$\frac{2}{5}$ of $100=40$
$\frac{3}{5}$ of $100=60$
$\frac{4}{5}$ of $100=80$
$\frac{5}{6}$ of $100=83\frac{1}{3}$
$\frac{2}{7}$ of $100=28\frac{4}{7}$
$\frac{3}{7}$ of $100=42\frac{6}{7}$
$\frac{3}{8}$ of $100=37\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{5}{8}$ of $100=62\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{7}{8}$ of $100=87\frac{1}{2}$

These fractional parts of 100 should be memorized just as factors are memorized. A little later the pupils will learn that one or all of anything is 100 per cent of it. They now apply their knowledge of these fractional parts of 100 and they see that $\frac{1}{6}$ of anything is $16\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of it; $\frac{1}{8}$ of anything is $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of it, etc. This drill should be repeated quite frequently. As the pupils have not yet learned percentage, they do not use the sign %, but read it $.16\frac{2}{3}$.

(b) OTHER EQUIVALENTS. The next step is to show that not only fractions that represent factors of 100 may be converted into decimal fractions but that any common fraction may be so converted without changing its value. For example, to find that $\frac{1}{8}$ of $100=12\frac{1}{2}$, we divide 100 by 8, or 100 times the numerator by 8, to find the ratio of the fraction to 100. But since *per centum* means *by the hundred*, or so many hundredths, $\frac{1}{8}$ of a thing is $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of it. But we write it as a decimal fraction, $.12\frac{1}{2}$, and read it $12\frac{1}{2}$ hundredths. Here is the pupil's first lesson in percentage for which he is being prepared through the medium of decimals. If we find $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent by dividing 100 by 8, so may we convert $\frac{3}{7}$ into a decimal fraction in the same way. We want to know how to express in the form of a decimal fraction, $\frac{3}{7}$ of a number.

36. Reading and Writing Decimals. The use of the decimal point must be made clear before drills in writing and reading decimal numbers are undertaken. The use of the period in writing United States money as dollars and cents has doubtless been made clear in the third or fourth grade. Since cents are hundredths of a dollar, $3.48 may be read "3 and 48 hundredths dollars." Explain how checks are written. Numeration may be reviewed to billions, with drill on the selection of a figure in a given written number answering to the name of the order called for by the teacher. In 168967, which figure is in thousands place? In writing a decimal the separatrix takes the place of the *name* of the order, for the reason that the name of the order in decimals is also the name of the denominator of the fraction.

Read these decimal fractions: .9, .85, .109, .1009, .89678, .79, .857, .1001001, .7956.

Read these decimal numbers: 6.94, 8.907, 178.009, 1000.0001, 10.010101, 909.909.

Pupils very commonly fail to distinguish between thousands and thousand*ths*, millions and million*ths*, hundreds and hundred*ths*, etc. Drill on the correct articulation of these words as well as upon the correct notations. The teacher may find it necessary to drill again upon the writing of numbers to billions from dictation. Have various numbers written first as whole numbers and then have them converted into decimals from dictation.

Be sure to distinguish the correct use of *and* in writing whole numbers and decimals. For example 348.789 should be read three hundred forty-eight *and* seven hundred eighty-nine *thousandths*. The *and* stands for the period and is the conjunction joining the *two* numbers — one a whole number and the other a decimal. It is incorrect to say three hundred *and* forty-eight. In addition numbers similar to the following may be used for the double purpose of teaching the correct writing of numbers from dictation and the addition of decimals. The only *new* principle to be learned by the pupil is the correct placing of the separatrix. The addition itself ought not to give the teacher any concern here.

.465	(four hundred sixty-five *thousandths*)
.3897	(three thousand eight hundred ninety seven *ten-thousandths*)
39.475	(thirty nine *and* four hundred seventy-five *thousandths*)
792.	(seven hundred ninety-two)
688.0375	(six hundred eighty-eight *and* three hundred seventy-five *ten-thousandths*)
28509.	(twenty-eight thousand five hundred nine)
4.795	(four *and* seven hundred ninety-five *thousandths*)
1001.1001	(one thousand one *and* one thousand one *ten-thousandths*)
500.0065	(five hundred *and* sixty-five *ten-thousandths*)

37. Drills. Give the pupils abundant drill in writing decimals from written or printed *words*, such as those given in the parentheses above. Erase the numbers to the left and require the pupils to restore them. Then erase the words given in the parentheses and require the pupils to restore them. The following device may be used with profit in fixing the place and the spelling of these orders:

Thousands		Hundreds	Tens	Units		Tenths	Hundredths	Thousandths		Ten-thousandths	Hundred-Thousandths	Millionths		Ten-Millionths	Hundred-Millionths	Billionths
4	,	3	6	7	.	5	6	8	,	4	7	5	,	3	0	5

The teacher should give the pupil a large number of problems to read and to write. Usually a sufficient number of exercises may be found in the text-book in use, but such lists as the following may be suggestive. Write the numbers first, then read them:

1. Four hundred thousandths.
2. Four hundred-thousandths.
3. Four hundred thousand.

4. Four hundred and four thousandths.
5. Four hundred four thousandths.
6. Four hundred thousand four.
7. Four hundred thousand and four thousandths.
8. Thirty thousand thousandths.
9. Thirty thousand and thirty thousandths.
10. Thirty thousand thirty thousandths.

38. Addition of Decimals. Let the pupils write from dictation problems in addition. This will require the use of the separatrix as well as the correct placing of each order, both of the whole numbers and the decimals. With the exception of these new features, there is no difference between the addition of decimals and that of whole numbers.

39. Subtraction of Decimals. In subtraction of decimals the same directions should be followed as for addition. Point out to the pupil that if the numbers are correctly written there should be no difficulty, because the subtraction is performed exactly as in the subtraction of whole numbers, remembering to keep the decimal points in a perpendicular column, no matter whether the columns are straight on the *right* or not.

40. Multiplication of Decimals. In multiplication and division of decimals it would be well to illustrate the effect due to moving the decimal point, or separatrix, to the right or to the left. Since a unit of any order is ten times as large as a unit of the next order to the right, when a digit is moved one place to the left in a number, we multiply it by 10. This is the same as moving the decimal point to the right. For example, $64.54 \times 10 = 645.4$. If the decimal point is moved two places or orders to the right, the number is multiplied by 100. Likewise, moving the decimal point to the left one place divides the number by 10, and two places, divides the number by 100, etc. In multiplying one decimal by another the number of figures in the whole number of the answer will usually be the same as it would be if there were no decimals to be used in the multiplying ,This is merely approximately true and may be used for purpose of illustration. The pupil will then see that all the figures to the right of the whole number belong to the decimal. They may be next led to see that this number is the *sum* of the number of figures to the right of the separatrix in both multiplier and multiplicand.

41. Division of Decimals. In division, since division is but the reverse of multiplication, the number of the figures in the decimal in the quotient will be the difference between the number in the dividend and divisor.

1. Multiply 8.4 by 3.5.
2. Multiply 06.5 by 0.87.
3. Multiply 7500 by 1.075.
4. Multiply 2.607 by 0.00708.
5. Multiply six thousand and three ten-thousandths by six thousand three ten-thousandths.
6. Divide 48.8 by 8.
7. Divide .58975 by .07.
8. Divide 3.18 by 6000.
9. Divide 0.44569 by 4900.
10. Divide 189695.4 by 2.708.

By means of the above problems all the principles in the multiplication and division of decimals may be demonstrated. Here, as elsewhere, problems should be carefully graded. In teaching new principles, the problems should be so worded as to involve only one new principle at a time. It is unnecessary to divide a subject such as decimals or percentage into Case I, Case II, etc., but it is quite essential that the teacher should keep in mind the necessity of developing each new principle in its proper sequence.

42. Metric System. With common and decimal fractions pretty thoroughly learned the pupil should now be able to perform a variety of operations that have to do with the relation that the parts of unity bear to the whole, and the relation that factors or parts of 100 bear to it. The great convenience in our system of writing numbers on the basis of 10 units of one order to equal 1 unit of the next higher can best be understood and appreciated when we contemplate the complexity of a system in which 12 units of one order would be required to make one unit of the next higher order. The pupil's knowledge of United States money and of decimals should be an excellent foundation for his introduction to the Metric System, which may come now at any time from the sixth grade on. There is not a sufficient demand yet in this country for the universal application of the Metric System to warrant its universal introduction into the elementary school curriculum. In some communities the public would sanction its study in the grammar grades but in most communities wisdom would suggest the postponement of its study until the pupil begins the study of physics in the high school. He will see the need of a knowledge of the Metric System then and a few lessons will be all he will need.

43. Percentages. In the latter part of the sixth year the subject of percentage should be introduced. The teacher will now recall that she has done much in this and preceding grades to familiarize the pupil with the parts of 100. She now introduces the idea that ***hundredths*** of anything means the ***per centum*** of the thing, commonly written in an abbreviated form, ***per cent***, or %. Hence, when we say that $\frac{1}{3}$ of a hundred is $33\frac{1}{3}$, we mean that $\frac{1}{3}$ of *anything* is $33\frac{1}{3}\%$, $\frac{1}{8} = 12\frac{1}{2}\%$; $\frac{1}{4} = 25\%$; $\frac{1}{5} = 20\%$; $\frac{2}{3} = 66\frac{2}{3}\%$, etc. The principles and the operations in percentage, then, are practically the same as in decimals, with the exception that while all percentage problems are problems in decimals, not all problems in decimals are problems in percentage. In percentage we deal with but *one* decimal and its uses — hundredths.

(a) RELATION TO COMMON FRACTIONS. Again, percentage may be considered a special form of common fractions. All problems in common and in decimal fractions in which the denominator is 100, are, in a measure, problems in percentage. The denominator in percentage is always 100, hence, there is no necessity for writing it. The period, as .06, or the sign, %, means that 100 is the denominator.

(b) Finding the Percentage. *Percentage* means the result obtained when it is desired to find so many hundredths of a number. If we wish to know what $\frac{5}{100}$ of 120 is, we obtain $\frac{1}{100}$ by moving the period two places to the left, which is 1.2. Then $\frac{5}{100}$ would be 5 times 1.2 or 6. But $\frac{5}{100}=.05$; then $120\times.05=6.00$.

We first study the relation of the percentage to the number itself. We wish to know what 75 per cent of 24 is. Here we mean to find $\frac{75}{100}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of 24; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 24 is 6; $\frac{3}{4}$ of 24 is 3 times 6 or 18. Hence, 75% of 24 is 18. Then the *per cent* of a number is so many hundredths of a number. But "so many hundredths of a number" means that we multiply the number by that number of hundredths, and since this may be done more readily when the number of hundredths is expressed decimally, we always write the hundredths or *per cent* as a decimal, thus; 6% = .06; 75% = .75; $\frac{3}{4}$% = .0075; 1$\frac{1}{2}$% = .015; .4% = .004; 1.4% = .014; 105% = 1.05; etc. Here are all the various types of numbers that we need to convert to the hundredths basis. This exercise should be greatly extended so that the pupil may have sufficient drill on each number to fix the form in mind.

To find the percentage of a number, then, is to find a given number of hundredths of the number. To find 5% of a number is to find $\frac{5}{100}$ of that number, or the number multiplied by .05. The product is called *percentage.*

Type Problems. Here are some type problems. What is 6% of $100? What is five per cent of 40? What is $\frac{5}{100}$ of 200? What is 75% of 12? What is .75% of 12? What is $\frac{3}{4}$% of 12? Find 8$\frac{1}{3}$% of 120. Find 6% of 540; of 850; of .85; of 3.45; of 6; of $\frac{1}{3}$; of 75%; of 10% of 80 % of 90%; of 16$\frac{2}{3}$; of 16$\frac{2}{3}$% of .16$\frac{2}{3}$%.

The teacher will find a good supply of problems in almost any text, but she will usually find that she can compose problems that will meet her needs. The problems in the books usually have the answers appended and too frequently the pupils work to obtain the answers merely.

The method of solution should be so reliable as to make incorrect answers almost impossible, and certainly improbable. Pupils in this grade should be able to compose problems and apply the principles learned in such a way as to feel entirely secure in vouching for the results. They must ***know*** they are right and that the solution is correct.

(c) OTHER OPERATIONS. The next step is to find the number of which a given number is a given per cent; or to find the number which has been multiplied by the per cent, to find the percentage, which is also known. It is now time for the pupil to learn the names and the relations of these terms. Let us solve a problem and observe the process and the relations of the terms employed.

$500 multiplicand or base
.06 rate per cent
$30.00 percentage

We see that to find the percentage we found $\frac{6}{100}$ of a given number. We call that number the *base*, because we start with it. We multiply the base by the rate per cent to find the percentage. Look at the problem and you will see that the percentage is the product of two numbers — the base and the rate. If we have the product of two numbers and *one* of the numbers we divide the product by that number to find the other.

(d) FORMULAS. We are now ready to make these formulas:

$$P = B \times R$$
$$R = P \div B$$
$$B = P \div R$$

Do not expect your pupils to ***memorize*** these formulas, but to comprehend them. They should construct each formula after the solution of several problems to which it pertains. The trouble with much teaching is the over-emphasis placed upon memorizing rules and formulas. Of course, the man who is able to remember the rules he learned in this way is usually able to solve his problems, provided those problems are very similar to those in his book. Should the problem have an application apparently different from those he had learned to solve in school, he is unable to apply the rule. He had not been taught *to think the meaning of the problem*, to interpret it. However, if we send out from our schools people who have been trained to *evolve their own formulas*, they will be able to solve any problem that may be presented to them. If the pupils have learned the fundamental relationships of base, rate and percentage, they will have no trouble with the applications of percentage in the seventh grade nor subsequently.

(e) CASES IN PERCENTAGE. In review it might be stated that most texts group under three heads the principles above described, and call them Case I, Case II, and Case III. However this does not help the pupil in the least to understand the principles. No matter whether a problem falls under Case I, Case II, or Case III, the meaning and relationship of the terms employed constitute the fundamentals. These problems however, do represent three different types of problems, as follows:

1. To find the percentage of a number. Type: What is 75% of 16?

2. To find what per cent one number is of another. Type: What per cent (rate per cent) of 16 is 12?

3. To find the number of which a given number is a given per cent (rate per cent). Type: 12 is 75% of what number?

44. Solutions of Type Problems. There are several methods of illustrating the same principle or of solving the same problem. It is best for the teacher or the superintendent to decide upon the method to be used, and then continue the use of that method until the pupil masters it thoroughly. In such a book as the present volume, written for teachers and not for pupils, several methods may be given, with the intention of furnishing the teacher suggestions through variety. Ordinarily, when the course of study does not specifically designate or describe the method to be used, the teacher should be permitted to select her own method. This encourages originality and initiative. The following illustrative problems in percentage will serve as type problems:

1. John Doe bought a house for \$7,000 and sold it at a loss of 30%. What was the selling price and how much did he lose?

Solution.
$$\begin{array}{r l} \$7{,}000 & = \text{cost of house} \\ \underline{\quad .30} & = \text{rate of loss} \\ \$2{,}100.00 & = \text{loss} \end{array}$$
$$\$7{,}000 - \$2{,}100 = \$4{,}900, \text{ selling price.}$$

Another Solution:
$$\begin{array}{r l} 100\% & = \text{cost of the house} \\ \$7{,}000 & = \text{cost of the house} \\ \therefore 100\% & = \$7{,}000 \\ 1\% & = \$70 \\ 30\% & = \$2{,}100, \text{ the loss} \\ \$7{,}000 - \$2{,}100 & = \$4{,}900, \text{ the selling price.} \end{array}$$

2. John Doe sold a house for \$4,900, and lost 30%. What did the house cost?

Solution.
$$\begin{array}{r l} 100\% \text{ of the cost} & = \text{the cost in dollars.} \\ 30\% \text{ of the cost} & = \text{the loss in dollars.} \\ 70\% \text{ of the cost} & = \text{the selling price.} \\ \$4{,}900 & = \text{the selling price.} \\ 70\% & = \$4{,}900, \text{ since things equal to the same thing are equal to each other.} \\ 1\% & = \$70. \\ 100\% & = \$7{,}000, \text{ the cost.} \end{array}$$

3. My loss in selling a house for \$4,900 was 30%. What did the house cost me?

Solution.
$$\begin{array}{r l} 100\% & = \text{cost of the house.} \\ 30\% & = \text{loss.} \\ 100\% - 30\% = 70\% & = \text{selling price of house.} \end{array}$$

$4,900 = selling price of house.
$\therefore 70\% = \$4,900$
$1\% = \$70$
$100\% = \$7,000$ cost of house.

4. I sold a wagon for \$25, thus losing $16\frac{2}{3}\%$. What had the wagon cost me?

Solution. 100% = cost of the wagon.
$\underline{16\frac{2}{3}\%}$ = loss on the wagon.
$83\frac{1}{3}\%$ = selling price of the wagon.
$25 = selling price of the wagon.
$\therefore 83\frac{1}{3}\% = \$25,$
$1\% = 25 \div 83\frac{1}{3}$ or \$0.30.
$100\% = \$30.00$, cost.

5. A man sold a horse and buggy for \$140, gaining 20% on the horse and losing 20% on the buggy. What did each cost if the former cost only half as much as the latter?

Solution. 100% = cost of buggy.
50% = cost of horse.
20% = rate of loss on buggy.
20% = rate of gain on horse.
20% of $100\% = 20\%$, loss on buggy.
$100\% - 20\% = 80\%$, selling price of buggy.
20% of $50\% = 10\%$, gain on horse.
$50\% + 10\% = 60\%$, selling price of horse.
$80\% + 60\% = 140\%$, selling price of both.
But $140 = selling price of both.
$\therefore 140\% = \$140.$
$1\% = \$1,$
$100\% = \$100$, cost of the buggy,
$50\% = \$50$, cost of the horse.

6. A man bought two horses for \$300 and sold them for \$205 each, the gain on one being 20% more than on the other. Find the cost of each horse.

Solution. Evidently \$110 was the gain on both horses.
100% = gain on one.

120% = gain on the other.
220% = gain on both.
$110 = gain on both.
∴ 220% = $110.
1% = $0.50.
100% = $50, gain on one.
120% = $60, gain on the other.
$205 = selling price of each.
$205 − $50 = $155, cost of one.
$205 − $60 = $145, cost of the other.

7. A salesman asked an advance of 20% on some goods, but was obliged to sell at 20% less than his asking price. Did he gain or lose, and what per cent?

Solution. Let 100% = cost.
100% + 20% = 120%, asking price.
20% of 120% = 24%, amount of discount allowed from asking price.
120% − 24% = 96%, the selling price.
100% − 96% = 4%, the loss as required.

8. A carriage maker sold two carriages for $300 each; on one he gained 25%; on the other he lost 25%. Did he gain or lose by the sale? How much, and what per cent?

Solution. Let 100% = cost of first carriage.
25% = rate of gain on this cost. Then,
125% = selling price.
125% = $300.
1% = $2.40, and
100% = $240, cost of first carriage.
Let 100% = cost of the second carriage,
25% = rate of loss on this cost. Then,
75% = selling price.
75% = $300,
1% = $4, and
100% = $400, cost of second carriage.
$240 + $400 = $640, cost of both.

\$300+\$300=\$600, selling price of both.
\$640−\$600=\$40, the loss.
\$40÷\$640=.06¼ or 6¼%, rate of loss.

9. A man sold two horses at equal prices, gaining 25% on one and losing 25% on the other; his loss by the transaction was \$20. Find the cost of each horse.

Solution. Let 15% = selling price of each horse.
25% = rate of gain on one, and
25% = rate of loss on the other.
12% = cost of one, and
20% = cost of the other.
32% = total cost of both horses, and
30% = total selling price of both.
2% = loss by the transaction.
But \$20 = that loss.
2% = \$20,
1% = \$10,
12% = \$120, cost of the one, and
20% = \$200, cost of the other.

In the foregoing problem the rate of gain on one horse is 25%; hence, his selling price is $\frac{5}{4}$ of his cost. The rate of loss on the other horse is 25%; hence his selling price is just $\frac{3}{4}$ of his cost. The *numerators*, 5 and 3, of these fractions, suggest the symbol 15% to represent the selling price of each horse. It will be readily seen that $\frac{5}{4}$ of the cost of the one horse = 15%.

$\frac{4}{5}$ of 15% = 12%, his cost. It will be seen also, that $\frac{3}{4}$ of the cost of the other horse = 15%. $\frac{4}{3}$ of 15% = 20%, his cost.

The process of obtaining 12% and 20% as symbols to represent the respective costs should be performed *mentally* and pupils should be held to this step in the solution until they have thoroughly mastered it. Pupils thus drilled will soon show surprising skill in the selection of symbols needed in the solution of their problems. They will skilfully avoid *fractional* symbols, and their solutions will be characterized by that elegance that should mark every exercise of the class room. Pupils thus drilled will find their transition from arithmetic to algebra a very simple process.

Note. Pupils should be taught that 20% of $100\% = 20\%$; 20% of $80\% = 16\%$; 20% of $70\% = 14\%$; 20% of $15\% = 3\%$.

They should be carefully taught to express rates of % as common fractions; that $20\% = \frac{1}{5}$; that $25\% = \frac{1}{4}$; that $50\% = \frac{1}{2}$; that $33\frac{1}{3}\% = \frac{1}{3}$; that $16\frac{2}{3}\% = \frac{1}{6}$, etc. They should be so drilled as to be able to see that when the gain is 20%, the selling price must be $\frac{6}{5}$ of the cost; if the gain is $33\frac{1}{3}\%$, the selling price must be $\frac{4}{3}$ of the cost; if the gain is 25%, the selling price is $\frac{5}{4}$ of the cost; if the loss is 25%, the selling price must be $\frac{3}{4}$ of the cost, etc.

This method for solution for problems of this *type* might be still further illustrated by the solution of the following exercises:

10. A merchant sold two fine suits of clothes at equal prices, but he gained $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ on one and lost $16\frac{2}{3}\%$ on the other. Find the cost of each suit, if his gain by sales was a dollar.

Solution. Let 20% = the selling price of each suit.
$33\frac{1}{3}\%$ = rate of gain on the one, and
$16\frac{2}{3}\%$ = rate of loss on the other,
15% = cost of one suit,
24% = cost of the other. Then,
39% = total cost, and
40% = selling price.
1% = gain by the transaction.
But $\$1$ = gain by the transaction,
$1\% = \$1$,
$15\% = \$15$, cost of one suit, and
$24\% = \$24$, cost of the other.

11. A man sold two houses at equal prices. On one he gained 25% and on the other he lost 25%. Find the cost of each house if his loss by the transaction was $\$480$.

Solution. Let 15% = selling price of each house.
25% = rate of gain on one, and
25% = rate of loss on the other.
12% = cost of the one, and
20% = cost of the other. Then
32% = total cost of both houses, and
30% = total selling price of both.
2% = loss by the transaction.
2% = $480.
1% = $240.
12% = $2,880, cost of the one, and
20% = $4,800, cost of the other.

12. A man sold a horse for $198, which was 10% less than he asked for him, and his asking price was 10% more than the horse cost. Find the cost of the horse.

Solution. Let 100% = the asking price. Then,
90% = selling price.
90% = $198.
1% = $2.20, and
100% = $220, the asking price.
Let 100% = cost of the horse. Then
110% = asking price.
110% = $220,
1% = $2, and
100% = $200, the cost of the horse as required.

45. Vocational Arithmetic. Pupils in the sixth grade range in ages from eleven to thirteen years. This is the first really critical age in their moral and mental development. They are prone to become discouraged or dissatisfied with school. School does not seem real enough to them. They come to feel that they are wasting their time in school. Things do not seem sufficiently interesting. They want to quit school, and if they were old enough to escape the operations of the truant laws, they would try to leave school. In fact many pupils escape long before they are old enough to be excused, as is proved by statistics showing that one-half of all the children in this country never get farther than this grade.

School life should be made more interesting, which does not necessarily mean that the work of the school should be made less difficult or less advanced. Often the work becomes more interesting to the pupil when it is made more advanced. School should be connected more closely with the life of the pupil, and especially with the things that are "going on" around him — with the community's activities. He longs to become a real and vital part of these activities. He wants to be a merchant, a farmer, an engineer or a mechanic. He thinks school is a dull place compared with the places where people are making money. He wants to make money, too. He wants a job. He wants to do many things that would tend to wean him away from school.

The course of study has not recognized this fact. The boy is required to study many things that are foreign to his tastes and not connected with his ambitions. In arithmetic it is the duty of the school to show him that this subject is intensely practical and interesting. The sixth grade is perhaps the place to emphasize vocational arithmetic, certainly more than in the preceding grades.

46. Vocational Problems. Beside the suggestions offered in the fifth grade work, to which we would refer the reader for review at this point, we feel that much more emphasis should now be placed upon the subject and a much wider range of type problems should be offered, as well as a larger number of problems for practice under each type problem. It is not possible to give in these pages more than a brief list of such problems. We suggest that hundreds of others be gathered by the teacher and pupils from the various trades and vocations about them.

1. John Jones owns a gravel pit. In it he employs 6 men at $1.75 a day each. These men load 3 flat-cars per day, each car carrying 40 yards of gravel. The outlay for tools, stripping, and a steam shovel is $18 a day. How

much per yard does he make on his gravel if he wholesales it to the railroad company at the pit for 70 cents a yard?

2. A teamster finds that he has an outlay each month for feed, $16.50; for repairs on harness and wagon, $2.80; for horse shoeing, $3.80; for barn rent, $5.00. He receives $4.00 per day for self and team and averages 22 days per month at work. What are his net receipts from his work?

3. John Wanamaker, his wife and three children made a trip in an auto that cost $1,200 when new. The trip covered 450 miles. He used 30 gallons of gasoline costing him 24 cents per gallon, 4½ gallons of cylinder oil costing 60 cents a gallon, 30 cents worth of hard grease, 50 cents for oil for the transmission, 90 cents for a new spark plug, 25 cents for having the carburetor adjusted, and 50 cents for a blow-out patch. If the depreciation on the automobile due to the trip was 1%, how much per mile did it cost Mr. Wanamaker? If they had gone by train the fare would have been 2 cents a mile for himself, wife and one child and half fare for the other two children. How much cheaper would it have been by train?

4. Mary Simons went into the poultry business. She paid $1.00 each for 3 cockerels, 60 cents each for 40 Barred Plymouth Rock hens, $10.50 for feed, $1.50 for grit, $1 for disinfectant, and $2.50 for an automatic feeder. During the season 3 of her hens died. She sold 60 dozen eggs at 24 cents, 72 dozen at 25 cents, 40½ dozen at 22 cents; 42 spring fries averaging 2 lb. 10 oz. at 21 cents per pound; 4 dozen capons at $1.10 each; 40 pullets at $6.25 per dozen. How much did she clear on the season's work? Counting the invoice on her cockerels and hens at the price paid, and on 120 pullets left at 50 cents each, what was the value of her stock at the close of the season?

5. A certain grocer marks his goods so as to make the following profits on his sales: Sugar, 20%; fruits, 40%; tea and coffee, 30%; butter and eggs, 15%; poultry, 25%; canned goods and miscellaneous articles 20%. His sales for a week of six days were as follows: 100 lb. sugar at 8⅓

cents a pound; 60 lb. coffee at 32 cents; 20 lb. tea at 35 cents; fruits $40; canned goods $50; 70 lb. butter at 28 cents; 10 dozen eggs at 26 cents; spices, cakes, etc., $30. What was his profit per day, if he paid $9.00 a week for help; for rent and other expenses $30.00 per week?

6. Make out a bill for groceries as a grocer would make it out. Write a letter to the commission merchant ordering fruits, vegetables, etc.

7. A farmer's cow gave 5,960 pounds of milk in July, and it tested 3.85% butter fat. Was the test good, or poor? What was the butter fat worth at 29 cents a pound?

8. During her milking season a cow gave 9,050 lb. of milk, which produced 295 lb. of butter fat? What was her test?

9. When a dealer buys 35 barrels of flour at $5.50 per barrel and retails it at 85 cents a sack of 24 pounds, what is his profit? His rate of profit?

10. The Federal Government estimates that the average cost of living for one person a year in this country is $183. What is the cost for a family of five persons at this rate?

11. What will it cost to plow a field of 14 acres if a team is worth $3.50 a day, and a man can plow 2½ acres a day?

12. How many bushels of shelled corn in a crib of ear corn, the length being 40 feet, the width 10 feet, and the height to the square 8½ feet? (To find the number of bushels of shelled corn a crib will hold in the ear, multiply the length, width, and height together in feet and divide by 2½, or multiply those three dimensions together then multiply by 4 and cut off the right hand figure. The result is the number of bushels.)

13. How many bushels of wheat will a granary hold that is 12 feet long, 8 feet high, and 5 feet wide? (Multiply the products of the three dimensions by 8 and cut off the right hand figure.)

14. How many bushels of corn would an acre produce if the corn were checked in rows 3 feet 6 inches apart,

3 stalks to the hill, 80% of the stalks bearing ears that made 120 to the bushel?

15. How many gallons will a watering trough hold if it is 14 feet long, 3 feet wide and 2 feet deep? (Multiply dimensions together and this product by $7\frac{1}{2}$, and the product will be approximately the number of gallons.)

16. A farmer sold the following products in one year: 110 hogs averaging 230 lb. at $8.90 a hundred; 10 steers averaging 990 lb. at $7.85 a hundred; 200 bushels of wheat at $1.05 per bushel; 50 bushels of potatoes at 80 cents a bushel; 9 tons of clover hay at $14 a ton and 6 tons of timothy at $18 a ton; 1,908 pounds clover seed at $12.40 per bushel; 3 calves at $18; 600 pounds orchard grass seed at $2.40 per bushel. Write up these entries in his account book under receipts and find the total.

17. The farmer, mentioned in the preceding problem, has a $10,000 investment in his farm, stock, and implements. His living is worth $150 each for himself, wife, and one son. Counting his living as a part of his income, what did he receive for his labor and his interest on investment, counting taxes, insurance and repairs at $220?

18. Jerry Moore produced 223 bu. 3 pk. of corn on an acre. He spent $1.50 for seed, $12.50 for a team, $54 for fertilizer, and sold 60 bushels of his corn for seed at $2.50 per bushel and the balance at 85 cents a bushel. What was his net profit for his labor?

19. Corn removes from the soil 17.2 lb. ammonia, 7.2 lb. phosphoric acid, and 21.4 lb. potash for each ton of corn produced. How many pounds of each is removed from an acre of ground producing 80 bushels of corn?

20. John Miller built for his own use a carpenter's shop in the back yard. It required 4 pieces of hemlock 16 feet long and 2 by 8 inches; 10 pieces of hemlock 8 feet long and 2 by 4 inches; 24 pieces of oak 10 feet long, 2 by 4; the hemlock cost $28 a thousand and the oak $24 a thousand. He used also 1,200 feet of barn siding at $30 a thousand, 200 feet of flooring at $36 a thousand, 2,500

shingles at $6.40 a thousand, and nails, hinges and locks, $2.85. What did the material for the shop cost him?

The teacher who is resourceful will be able to "find" even better problems than these growing out of various activities all about the school.

47. Interest. In the sixth school year the subject of interest may be taught, following the subject of percentage. This is not a very difficult subject to teach, but much depends upon the methods employed. When the pupil understands that *interest* is money paid for the use of money and that the period on which its use is based is the year, and that interest is *per cent*, the way is comparatively easy. The time element is the only thing not encountered in percentage. The principal is the base, the rate of interest is the rate per cent, and the interest is the percentage. If percentage has been properly taught, interest will be comparatively easy for the pupil. The point to be made clear in the outset is that the percentage obtained by multiplying the principal by the rate is the interest for one year. With this made clear, the teacher must teach the pupil how to find the interest for more than one year, or less than one year. This may be taught by aliquot parts, cancellation, or by changing the *rate* to correspond to the portion of *time* the interest runs. For example, 6% for one year would become 9% for one year as the equivalent for $1\frac{1}{2}$ years at 6%, or 10% for one year as the equivalent for 1 year 8 mo., since 1 yr. 8 mo. $= 1\frac{2}{3}$ yr., and $1\frac{2}{3}$ times 6% is 10%.

(a) METHODS. Let the teacher find a method that she understands and can make plain and simple, then cling pretty closely to that method. We append here a brief statement of one method, the cancellation method:

Problem. Find the simple interest on $600 at 5% for 1 year 8 mo. 10 days.

Solution. If we multiply $600 by 5% we obtain the simple interest for one year, or 360 days. If we divide this by 360, we find the interest for one day, and multiply this by the number of days the note runs, 1 yr. 8 mo. 10 days or 610 days, we shall have the interest for that length of time. But we may *indicate* this process and find only the *final* result, . the answer, thus:

$$\frac{\$\overset{\cancel{6}}{\cancel{6}\cancel{0}0}\times 5\times \overset{61}{\cancel{61}0}}{1\cancel{0}0\times \underset{\underset{6}{\cancel{6}0}}{3\cancel{6}0}}=\$\frac{305}{6}=\$50.08\tfrac{1}{3}.$$

The first step is to teach the pupil to write $600 multiplied by 5% as $\frac{5}{100}$, which would give the interest for one year. But since we do not need to know the interest for one year, we merely indicate the operation, thus:

$$\frac{600\times 5}{100}$$

But we want to find the interest for 610 days, so we divide by 360, which would give us the interest for one day, and for 610 days it would be 610 times as much. But again we need only to *indicate* the process, when we divide by 360.

(b) ANNUAL INTEREST. The principle employed in annual interest may be taught here but it is not so essential in this grade as the simple interest. Compound interest need not be taught at all.

SEVENTH YEAR

48. Review. The fundamental principles employed in percentage should be reviewed — base, rate and percentage. The logical time for general reviews is at the beginning of the year or the beginning of the term, rather than at its close. Topic reviews should be given immediately following the completion of each topic or theme. Reviews at the beginning of the year enable a pupil who may have been irregular in attendance the preceding year or somewhat behind his grade, to get another chance to catch up.

Classes differ widely. It may be found wise to omit the subject of arithmetical analysis as illustrated in the sixth grade and substitute a number of problems in percentage and use them at the beginning of the seventh grade.

49. Applications of Percentage. Perhaps the topic calling for the earliest application of the principles of percentage is interest, presented in the preceding grade. However, the time element enters into all problems of interest and requires special attention. Following interest should come profit and loss, which is so closely identified with percentage itself that no special instruction need be given other than instruction that applies to the parent topic, percentage.

50. Profit and Loss. The subject of gains and losses has such a varied and useful application that many concrete problems should be studied. Here are a few type problems, and the teacher should find many others for each type.

1. A sold a carriage at a gain of 20%. If it had cost him $60 less, he would have gained 32%. What was the cost of the carriage?

Solution. Let $100\% =$ *actual* cost of the carriage.
$20\% =$ rate of gain on this cost. Hence,
$120\% =$ selling price. Then let
$100\% - \$60 =$ supposed cost.
$32\% =$ rate of gain on this cost. Then,
32% of $(100\% - \$60) = 32\% - \$19.20$, amount of gain on this cost.
$\therefore (100\% - \$60) + (32\% - \$19.20) = 132\% - \$79.20$, the selling price.
$\therefore 132\% - \$79.20 = 120\%$.
$12\% = \$79.20$,
$1\% = \$6.60$, and
$100\% = \$660$, the actual cost as required.

2. I invested $10,000, and sold out at a loss of 20%. How much must I borrow at 4%, so that by investing all I then have at a gain of 18%, I may retrieve my loss?

20% of \$10,000 = \$2,000, amount of loss to be retrieved.

\$10,000 − \$2,000 = \$8,000, amount of original capital to be reinvested.

18% of \$8,000 = \$1,440, amount gained on the \$8,000.

\$2,000 − \$1,440 = \$560, amount to be gained on borrowed money.

If the money is borrowed for one year at 4%, the interest on \$1 will be \$0.04, and the income will be \$0.18 if it is invested at a gain of 18 per cent.

\$0.18 − \$0.04 = \$0.14, net gain on \$1 of the borrowed money.

∴ \$560 ÷ \$0.14 = \$4,000.

∴ \$4,000 = amount to be borrowed.

3. B sells an article at a gain of 40%; but if it had cost \$135 more than it did, he would have lost 50%. Find cost.

Solution. Let 100% = actual cost of the article.
40% = rate of gain on this cost. Then,
140% = selling price.
100% + \$135 = supposed cost, and
50% = rate of loss on this cost. Then
50% of (100% + \$135) = 50% + \$67.50, amount of loss.
∴ (100% + \$135) − (50% + \$67.50) = 50% + \$67.50, the selling price.

But from the conditions of the problem the *actual* and *supposed* selling prices are equal.

∴ 140% = 50% + \$67.50,
90% = \$67.50,
1% = \$0.75, and
100% = \$75, the actual cost as required.

4. A merchant sold two overcoats for equal sums of money. On one he gained 25%, and on the other he lost 25%. His loss on the whole transaction was \$2.40. Find the cost of each coat.

Solution. Let 15% = selling price of each coat.
25% = rate of gain on cost of the one, and
25% = rate of loss on the cost of the other.
Then, 12% = cost of the one, and
20% = cost of the other.
12% + 20% = 32%, total cost of both coats.
15% + 15% = 30%, total selling price of both coats.
32% − 30% = 2%, his loss by the transaction.
∴ 2% = $2.40.
1% = $1.20.
12% = $14.40, cost of the one, and
20% = $24, cost of the other.

5. A man spent $100 in buying two kinds of silk at $4.50 and $4 a yard; by selling it at $4.25 per yard he gained 2%. How many yards of each did he buy?

Solution. $100 = cost of silk.
2% = rate of profit on this cost.
∴ $102 = selling price.
But $4.25 = selling price per yard.
∴ $102 ÷ $4.25 = 24, number of yards of silk in the entire purchase.
Hence,
$\frac{1}{24}$ of \$100 = \$4$\frac{1}{6}$, average cost of a yard of silk.
\$4$\frac{1}{6}$ − \$4 = \$$\frac{1}{6}$, loss by paying \$4$\frac{1}{6}$ instead of \$4 per yard, and
\$4.50 − \$4$\frac{1}{6}$ = $\frac{1}{3}$, gain by paying \$4$\frac{1}{6}$ instead of \$4.50 per yard.

Then, to balance these gains and losses, we must take 2 yards upon which the loss is \$$\frac{1}{6}$ per yard, with 1 yard upon which the gain is \$$\frac{1}{3}$. In other words, 24 yards must be divided into two parts which are to each other as 1 is to 2. ∴ $\frac{1}{3}$ of 24 yards = 8 yards, amount bought at \$4.50 per yard, and, $\frac{2}{3}$ of 24 yards = 16 yards, amount bought at \$4 per yard.

6. I bought vinegar at 15¢ a gallon; 20% leaked out. At how much a quart must I retail it to have a net gain of 20%?

Solution. Since this is not a *particular* problem, let 100 gallons be the amount of vinegar bought. Then,

$15 = its cost.

20% of $15 = $3, amount of profit desired. Then,

$15 + $3 = $18, selling price necessary to give a net gain of 20% on the cost of the vinegar. But,

20% of 100 gallons = 20 gallons, amount of leakage.

Hence, 100 gallons − 20 gallons = 80 gallons, amount of vinegar left for sale.

$\frac{1}{80}$ of $\$18 = 22\frac{1}{2}¢$, retail selling price per gallon.

$\frac{1}{4}$ of $22\frac{1}{2}¢ = 5\frac{5}{8}¢$, retail selling price per quart as required.

In practical business these selling prices would be 23 cents and 6 cents.

7. A company sells sewing machines to a wholesaler at $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ profit; the wholesaler sells to a retailer at $12\frac{1}{2}\%$ profit; the retailer sells to his customers at 20% profit. If the retailer's profit is $9, find the cost of a machine to the company.

Solution. Let 100% = cost to the company.

$33\frac{1}{3}\%$ = rate of profit on this cost. Then,

$100\% + 33\frac{1}{3}\% = 133\frac{1}{3}\%$, company's selling price, or wholesaler's cost.

$12\frac{1}{2}\%$ = wholesaler's rate of profit. Then,

$12\frac{1}{2}\%$ of $133\frac{1}{3}\% = 16\frac{2}{3}\%$, wholesaler's profit.

$133\frac{1}{3}\% + 16\frac{2}{3}\% = 150\%$, wholesaler's selling price, or retailer's cost.

20% = retailer's rate of profit. Then,

20% of 150% = 30%, retailer's profit on a machine.

$\therefore$ 30% = $9.

1% = .30, and

100% = $30, cost of a machine to the company.

8. If 80% of a car load of wheat is sold for what the car load cost, what per cent is gained?

Solution. Since this problem is ***general*** let
$100 = cost of the car load of wheat.
80% of $100 = $80, cost of the part sold. Then,
$100 − $80 = $20, profit on part sold.
1% of $80 = $0.80. Then,
$20 ÷ $0.80 = 25; ∴ 25% = rate of profit as required.

9. A speculator sold 1,250 bushels of wheat at a gain of 20%. If it had cost him $350 more, he would have lost 6¼%. How much per bushel did he receive?

Solution. Let 100% = actual cost of the wheat.
20% = rate of gain on this cost. Then,
100% + $350 = supposed cost of wheat.
6¼% = rate of loss on this cost. Then,
6¼% of (100% + $350) = 6¼% + $21.87½, amount of loss.
(100% + $350) − (6¼% + $21.87½) = 93¾% + $328.12½, selling price of the wheat. Then,
120% = 93¾% + $328.12½,
26¼% = $328.12½,
1% = $12.50,
100% = $1,250, actual cost of the wheat. Then,
$\frac{1}{1250}$ of $1,250 = $1, cost per bushel.
120% of $1 = $1.20, amount received per bushel, as required.

10. A merchant sold a quantity of goods at a gain of 20%. If it had cost him $350 more, he would have lost 6¼%. than he did, his gain would have been 25%. Required the cost of the goods.

Solution. Let 100% = the actual cost of the goods, and 20% the actual gain; then 100% + 20% = 120%, the selling price; also, let (100% − $60) = the supposed cost, and 25% = supposed rate of gain; then, 25% of (100% − $60) + (25% − $15) = (125% − $75), the *supposed* selling price; but the supposed selling price and the *actual* selling price are equal; then 120% = 125% − $75; from which 5% = $75; 1% = ⅕ of $75, or $15; and 100% = 100 × $15, or $1,500. Therefore $1,500 is the actual cost of the goods.

11. I sell goods and gain 10%; if they had cost $300 more I would have lost 10%. What did the goods cost?

Solution. Let 100% = the actual cost of the goods, and 10% the actual gain; then 100% + 10% = 110%, the actual selling price. Also, let 100% + $300 = the supposed cost, and 10% the supposed loss; then 10% of (100% + $300), or 10% + $30 = amount of loss; and (100% + $300) − (10% + $30) = 90% + $270, the supposed selling price; but the supposed selling price and the actual selling price are the same; then 110% = 90% + $270, from which 20% = $270; 1% = $\frac{1}{20}$ of $270, or $13.50; and 100% = 100 × $13.50, or $1,350. Therefore, the goods cost $1,350.

12. I sold an article to A for $\frac{1}{4}$ more than it cost me. He sold it for $6, which was $\frac{2}{5}$ less than it cost him. What did it cost me?

Solution. Let $\frac{4}{4}$ = cost to me, and $\frac{1}{4}$ = my gain; then $\frac{4}{4}+\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{5}{4}$ = my selling price, or A's cost price. If now, A sold it for $\frac{2}{5}$ less than it cost him, he sold it for $\frac{5}{4}-(\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{4})$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of its original cost; but he sold it for $6; then $\frac{3}{4}$ of its original cost = $6; $\frac{1}{4}$ of the original cost = $\frac{1}{3}$ of $6, or $2, and $\frac{4}{4}$, or the original cost = 4 × $2, or $8. Therefore, it cost me $8.

13. A merchant marked a lot of goods to sell at 25% above cost. After selling $\frac{1}{3}$ of the goods, he discovered that a part was so damaged as to be worthless. He then marked the remainder of his salable goods at an advance of 10% above their former marked price; and on closing out at this price he cleared by the transaction 20% on the original cost of the goods. Find cost of the damaged goods.

Solution. Since this is not a *particular* problem, suppose that $300 = original cost of the goods.

20% of $300 = $60, amount of profit by the transaction.
∴ $300 + $60 = $360, selling price of the goods.
Let 100% = cost of damaged part. Then,
$200 − 100% = cost of salable part.

\$100 = cost of the part ($\frac{1}{3}$) sold, and

\$125 = selling price of this part, since he made 25% on cost.

25% of (\$200 − 100%) = \$50 − 25%, first marked profit on salable part.

(\$200 − 100%) + (\$50 − 25%) = \$250 − 125%, marked price of salable part before damage was discovered. Then,

10% of (\$250 − 125%) = \$25 − $12\frac{1}{2}$%, added profit to salable part of his goods.

∴ (\$250 − 125%) + (\$25 − $12\frac{1}{2}$%) = \$275 − $137\frac{1}{2}$%, the selling price of the remainder of his goods. Then,

\$125 + \$275 − $137\frac{1}{2}$% = \$400 − $137\frac{1}{2}$%, total selling price of the entire lot of goods.

$137\frac{1}{2}$% = \$400.

1% = \$0.29$\frac{1}{11}$ and

100% = \$29$\frac{1}{11}$, or \$29.09$\frac{1}{11}$, cost of damaged goods as required.

14. A furniture dealer bought a lot of tables at \$3 each and chairs at \$2 each to the amount of \$76. He sold 3 tables and $\frac{2}{5}$ of his chairs for \$23, losing 8% on their cost. How many of each did the dealer buy?

Solution. Let 100% = cost of 3 tables and $\frac{2}{5}$ of the chairs.
8% = rate of loss on this cost.. Then,
92% = selling price of 3 tables and $\frac{2}{5}$ of the chairs.
∴ 92% = \$23.
1% = \$$\frac{23}{92}$, and
100% = 100 × \$$\frac{23}{92}$ = \$25, cost of 3 tables and $\frac{2}{5}$ of the chairs.
3 × \$3 = \$9, cost of 3 tables. Then,
\$25 − \$9 = \$16, cost of $\frac{2}{5}$ of the chairs.
$\frac{1}{2}$ of \$16 = \$8, cost of $\frac{1}{5}$ of the chairs.
\$8 × \$5 = \$40, cost of all the chairs.
\$40 ÷ \$2 = 20, number of chairs purchased.
\$76 − \$40 = \$36, cost of tables.
\$36 ÷ \$3 = 12, number of tables.

15. A and B invest equal sums in business; A gained a sum equal to 25% of his stock, and B lost $225. A's money at this time was double that of B's. What amount did each invest?

Let 100% = investment of each.
125% = A's capital after gaining 25%.
100% − $225 = B's capital after losing $225. Then
200% − $450 = 125%.
∴ 75% = $450.
1% = $6
100% = $600, amount invested by each.

16. A merchant asked 25% more for his goods than they cost him, but at last sold them at a reduction of 10% from the asking price, thus realizing from the sale $4,684 profit. What was the cost of the goods?

Let 100% = cost of goods.
100% + 25% = 125%, asking price.
10% of 125% = 12.5%, reduction from asking price.
125% − 12.5% = 112.5%, selling price.
112.5% − 100% = 12.5%, gain.
12.5% = $4,684
1% = $374.72.
100% = $37,472, cost of goods.

17. Mr. A sold a horse for $198, which was 10% less than he asked for him, and his asking price was 10% more than the horse cost him. What was the cost of the horse?

100% = cost of horse. Then
110% = asking price.
90% of 110% = 99%, selling price.
∴ 99% = $198.
1% = $2
100% = $200, cost of horse as required.

18. A merchant sold a quantity of goods at a gain of 20%; if, however, he had purchased the goods for $60 less

than he did, his gain would have been 25%. What did the goods cost?

Let $100\% =$ actual cost of goods.
$20\% =$ rate of gain on this cost.
$120\% =$ selling price.
$100\% - \$60 =$ supposed cost.
$25\% =$ rate of gain on this cost. Then,
125% of $(100\% - \$60) = 125\% - \$75$, selling price.
$125\% - \$75 = 120\%$
$5\% = \$75$
$1\% = \$15$
$100\% = \$1{,}500$, actual cost of goods.

Note. The problems in this group are taken from *Arithmetical Analyses* by Edson M. Mills and used by permission.

51. Trade Discount. This is sometimes known as commercial discount, and involves the principle of reductions from a given price in return for cash payment, or, more frequently, to give the buying public, ignorant of real profits made by the retailer, the idea that they are buying at a bargain. A wholesaler issues a catalog of his goods. This catalog may be used for advertising purposes to induce a prospective customer to buy. The catalog gives a description of the article and the supposed sale price, unless it be a catalog from a mail order firm, in which case it will probably be the *net* price, to which postage should be added if the article is to go by mail. The retailer uses the catalog in making the sale to the customer, but is usually able to make a "reduction" from the catalog price because he buys in such a "large quantity" or buys "only for cash," and thus is able to "save his customer money." Often the truth of the matter is that he is able to purchase the article for 40%, 50% or 60% less than the catalog price. He has a "confidential price list" furnished him by the wholesaler or jobber, and this is often meaningless or unintelligible to any one else who has not been privately instructed.

By means of this confidential price list he is able to save his customer money!

If the retailer gives but one discount, the problem is one of simple percentage similar to the illustrative problems given under that head. For example, a dealer sells goods, marked to sell for $60, at a discount of 25%. What was the selling price? 25% of $60 is $15, the trade discount, and $60 − $15 = $45, the selling price. Or, 100% − 25% = 75%, the selling price. 75% of $60 = $45, the selling price.

But he may offer two or more *successive* discounts, as 25% and 10% off. This means he first offers the goods, apparently, at 25% off list price, then makes a second discount of 10% from the first asking price. 25% off list price would be $45, in the problem above. A second trade discount of 10% from this price would be $4.50, making the selling price $40.50. This may be stated in this way: 90% of 75% of $60 = $40.50.

Problem. What was the price paid for a bill of goods listed at $540, if the trade discounts were 25% and 15%?

Solution. 25% discount would leave 75% as the asking price. A further discount of 15% would leave 85% of 75% as the selling price. Then 85% of 75% of $540 = $344.25.

This may be solved in this way: 25% of $540 = $135, first discount; $540 − $135 = $405, amount of the bill after the first discount, which becomes the *base* in the next calculation. 15% discount on $405 = $61.75, second discount. $405 − $61.75 = $344.25, selling price.

The teacher will need to show the pupil that two successive discounts of 25% and 15% are not the same as 25% + 15%, or 40%, because the *base* changes with each successive discount. Here are a few problems that may serve as types:

1. Invoiced price, $1020.45 Discount, 10, 5, and 3 off.
2. Invoiced price, $2142.45. Discount, 5, 2½, and ⅛ off.
3. Invoiced price, $402.18. Discount, 20, 5, and 2½ off.
4. Invoiced price, $104.80. Discount, 10, 8⅓, and ¼ off.

5. Invoiced price, $692.45. Discount, 40, 10, and 5 off.

6. Invoiced price, $804.20. Discount, 50, 30, and 1 off.

7. Invoiced price, $201.13. Discount, 30, 20, and 10 off.

8. Invoiced price, $404.50. Discount, 20, 10, and 3⅓ off.

9. Invoiced price, $930.00. Discount, 33⅓, 20, and 2½ off.

10. Invoiced price, $224.40. Discount, 25, 16⅔, and 12½ off.

11. The gross amount of a bill of merchandise is $186.36; what is the net amount, the rates of discount being 30% and 20%?

12. What direct discount is equivalent to a discount of 20% and 10%?

13. What direct discount is equivalent to a discount of 33⅓%, 20%, and 1%?

14. What is the difference on a bill of $425 between a discount of 50% and a discount of 30% and 20%?

15. A book broker buys books at 20% and 10% from the catalog prices, and sells them at an advance of 10% on catalog prices. What per cent profit does he make?

16. An agent buys 3 pianos, the list prices of which are $420, $630, and $800. He is allowed 20 and 10 off. He sells the pianos at an advance of 50% on the cost prices. Find his total profit.

52. Commission. Oftentimes when one person transacts business for another he receives as his pay a certain per cent of the amount of money used in the transaction; if he buys, he receives his commission on the cost price; if he sells, his commission is reckoned on the selling price. This changing base is what breeds most of the confusion that arises, for pupils are inclined to associate *base* with cost price exclusively. Keep foremost the idea that the agent should be paid for what he does, and that the measure of what he does is the money he pays out when he buys for his employer, and the money he receives when he sells for his employer.

The conditions that give most trouble are typified in the following problem:

If I sent an agent $512.50 with which to buy goods and pay his commission of $2\frac{1}{2}\%$, how much does the agent invest in goods?

The key to the example is again the fact that the commission is charged on the cost price of the goods; that is, the cost price of the goods is the base, or 100%. Accordingly, the money I send is $100\% + 2\frac{1}{2}\% = 102\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the amount to be expended. Therefore,

$102\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the amount to be invested by agent = $512.50.
1% of the amount to be invested by agent = $5.
100% = $500, the amount expended for goods.

In other words, the commission for selling an article is paid by the one who owns the article and offers it for sale through an agent. The commission is the agent's pay for making the transaction. The commission for buying an article is paid by the party who buys, and not by the party who sells, and the amount paid to the commission agent for buying goods for another party is paid out of the amount of money placed in his hands or at his disposal for the purpose of buying. The agent who buys on commission deducts his commission from the whole amount allowed him and buys goods with the remainder. However, the amount of money assigned him represents two separate sums: (1) the price he pays for the goods, (2) the amount of his commission. It is apparent then that 100% represents what he pays for the goods purchased for his principal, and the rate of commission allowed him is that many per cent of this 100%. These two added together make the total amount of money handled, or the cost of the goods to the man who buys through an agent.

(a) ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES. 1. An auctioneer received $11.50 for selling a lot of goods amounting to $460. What per cent commission did he receive?

Solution. $460 = what the goods sold for; $11.50 = agent's commission. If the agent had received 1% commission, or 1¢ on each $1 worth of goods sold, he would have received $4.60; then his rate of commission was as many per cent as $4.60 is contained times in $11.50, or $2\frac{1}{2}$%. Therefore, his rate of commission was $2\frac{1}{2}$%.

2. At a commission of $2\frac{1}{2}$%, a commission merchant receives 8.12\frac{1}{2}$ for selling 25 barrels of molasses. For how much per barrel did he sell the molasses?

Solution. Out of each $1 of the receipts for molasses the agent was entitled to $2\frac{1}{2}$¢ commission; but his total commission was 8.12\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, there must have been as many dollars in the receipts for molasses as $2\frac{1}{2}$¢ is contained times in 8.12\frac{1}{2}$, or $325. If 25 = number of barrels sold, then $\frac{1}{25}$ of $325, or $13 = the selling price of one barrel.

3. An agent receives $210 with which to buy goods; after deducting his commission of 5%, what must he expend?

Note. Where an agent receives money to invest, with instructions to reserve his commission out of the amount received, the sum of money so received by the agent is composed of two parts, viz.: Investment and commission. The investment will always consist of 100 parts, and the commission of so many parts as may be agreed upon.

Solution. $210 = investment + commission; 100 parts = investment; 5 parts = commission; then $\frac{5}{105}$ = his commission, and $\frac{100}{105}$ = his investment; $\frac{100}{105}$ of $210, or $200 = amount expended; and $\frac{5}{105}$ of $210, or $10 = agent's commission.

4. What are the net proceeds on a sale of goods amounting to $180, at 4% commission?

Solution. 4¢ = agent's commission for selling $1 worth of goods; then, for selling $180 worth of goods he will receive 180×4¢, or $7.20; and $180 − $7.20, or $172.80 = net proceeds of sale.

5. Sold some goods on commission at 5%, through an agent who charged me 3%; my commission, after paying

my agent, was $388; required the agent's commission, my commission, and the money paid to my employers?

Solution. $388 = my net commission, *i.e.*, my commission left after paying my agent; 5¢ = my commission on each $1 of the goods sold; 3¢ = the commission I pay an agent for selling the same; 5¢ − 3¢ = 2¢ = my net commission on $1; but, since my net commission on the whole was $388, then there must have been as many dollars' worth of goods sold as 2¢ is contained times in $388, or $19,400; 19,400 × 5¢, or $970, my commission; 19,400 × 3¢, or $582, my agent's commission, which may also be found thus; $970 − $388 = $582. $19,400 − $970, or $18,430 = net proceeds, or amount to be remitted to my employers.

6. Sold 1,400 barrels of flour, at $6.20 a barrel; invested the proceeds in sugar, as per order, reserving my commissions, 4% for selling and 1½% for buying, and the expense of shipping, $34.16; how much did I invest in sugar?

Solution. 1,400 × $6.20, or $8,680 = selling price of the flour; 8,680 × 4¢ = $347.20; then $347.20, first commission + $34.16, expense of shipping = $381.36, and $8,680 − $381.36 = $8,298.64 = investment and commission in sugar. 100 ÷ 101½ or $\frac{200}{203}$ of $8,298.64 = $8,176 = cost of sugar. Also, $\frac{3}{203}$ of $8,298.64, or $122.64 = agent's commission for buying sugar.

7. Sold flour at 3½% commission; invested ⅔ of its value in coffee, at 1½% commission; remitted the balance, $432.50. What was the value of the flour, the coffee, and my commissions?

Solution. Out of every $1 received for flour there was set aside, (1), 3½¢ commission for selling it; (2), 66⅔¢ for the purchase of coffee; and (3), a sum equal to 1½% or $\frac{3}{200}$ of 66⅔¢, or 1¢. Now, 3½¢ + 66⅔¢ + 1¢ = 71⅙¢ = total amount set aside out of every $1 received for flour. $1.00 − 71⅙¢ = 28⅚¢, balance, out of each $1, remitted to principal. But $432.50 = amount remitted to principal; then there must have been as many dollars received for flour as $28\frac{5}{6}$ is contained times in \$432.50, or \$1,500. $\frac{2}{3}$ of \$1,500, or \$1,000 = amount paid for coffee; 1,500 × $3\frac{1}{2}$¢, or \$52.50 = first commission. Also, \$1,000 × $1\frac{1}{2}$¢, or \$15 = second commission. Therefore, \$1,500 = value of flour; \$1,000 = value of coffee; \$52.50 = first commission; and \$15 = second commission.

Another Solution. Let 100% represent the amount received for flour; $\frac{2}{3}$ of 100%, or $66\frac{2}{3}$% = amount actually invested in coffee by agent; $1\frac{1}{2}$% of $66\frac{2}{3}$% (or $\frac{3}{200}$ of $66\frac{2}{3}$%) = 1%, agent's commission for buying coffee; $3\frac{1}{2}$% commission for flour + 1%, commission for buying coffee + $66\frac{2}{3}$%, price of coffee = $71\frac{1}{6}$%; 100% − $71\frac{1}{6}$% = $28\frac{5}{6}$% = balance to be remitted to principal; but \$432.50 = balance to be remitted; then $28\frac{5}{6}$% = \$432.50; $1\% = \frac{1}{28\frac{5}{6}}$ of \$432.50, or \$15; 100% = 100 × \$15, or \$1,500, value of flour; $\frac{2}{3}$ of \$1,500 = \$1,000, the value of the coffee; 1,500 × $3\frac{1}{2}$¢, or \$52.50 = first commission; 1,000 × $1\frac{1}{2}$¢, or \$15 = second commission.

8. An agent sold my corn, and, after reserving his commission, invested all the proceeds in corn at the same price; his commission, buying and selling, was 3%, and his whole charge \$12; for what was the corn sold?

Solution. Out of each \$1 received for corn, the agent got, first, 3¢, and secondly, $\frac{3}{103}$ of 97¢, or $\frac{291}{103}$¢; 3¢ + $\frac{291}{103}$¢ = \$$\frac{6}{103}$. But \$12 = agent's total commission for both transactions; hence, there must have been as many dollars in the receipts for corn as \$$\frac{6}{103}$ is contained times in \$12, or \$206.

9. An investor has \$21,630 to invest in cotton; he must allow $2\frac{1}{2}$% commission, pay $1\frac{1}{2}$% for marine insurance and $1\frac{3}{4}$% for cartage and freight. How many pounds of cotton can he buy at 15¢ per pound?

Let 100% = amount spent for cotton.
$2\frac{1}{2}$% = commission.
$1\frac{1}{2}$% = insurance.

$1\frac{3}{4}\% =$ cartage and freight.

$100\% + 2\frac{1}{2}\% + 1\frac{1}{2}\% + 1\frac{3}{4}\% = 105\frac{3}{4}\%$, cost of cotton plus commission and expenses.

$\therefore\ 105\frac{3}{4}\% = \$21,630.$

$1\% = \$204.54.$

$100\% = \$20,454$, amount spent for cotton.

$\$20,454 \div 15¢ = 136,360$, number pounds of cotton purchased.

53. Insurance. Fire insurance is a simple but practical form of percentage. The rate is based on the valuation fixed by agreement between the owner of the property and the agent of the insurance company. This valuation is never par value of the property, but usually not more than 80% of the sale value of the building or property insured. The rate of a period of one year is higher than the *rate per year* for a period of three years or five years for the reason that the insurance company must pay the agent out of the amount received for the insurance, and the agent's charges are not much more for writing a three-year or a five-year policy than for writing a one-year policy.

Insurance against tornadoes, lightning and other forms of destruction from natural causes is based on the element of risk and the rates are determined by a study of long series of risks. These rates, then, are fixed by the insurance companies.

(a) LIFE INSURANCE. Life insurance is based on a study of many thousands of cases to determine one's average chances of life when at any given age. For example, a man in good health at 25 years of age may reasonably *expect to live* a given number of years longer. This period of time is called his *expectancy*. The amount he must pay for insurance depends upon these rules of expectancy, and the hazards of the business he follows. Life insurance will cost a miner more than it will a farmer, because the miner has a shorter expectancy. The rate in life insurance is determined, therefore, by so many varying factors that this subject does not properly fall under the applications of percentage, for there is no element of percentage in it. The rate is fixed at so many dollars per thousand, this rate varying with the age of the insured, the expectancy due to hazards, the length of time the policy is to run, and the kind of policy. Therefore, life insurance is a matter for the insurance company and its agent, and not for the pupil in the school.

(b) PROPERTY INSURANCE. Property insurance, however, is based upon values and should be taught by means of practical applications. The pupils should write up the problems growing out of the experiences of those about them.

54. Partial Payments. This subject has many times proved troublesome, but principally owing to the fact that the problems are necessarily long and that pupils are deficient in skill in carrying out the ordinary computations. Sometimes pupils have been confused by having two or three different methods introduced to their attention. It is necessary to learn one method and learn it well, and that method is the one which is legal in the state where the pupil lives. In the great majority of cases this will prove to be what is known as the United States Rule. This is one of the rules which must be learned because it is a rule in a legal sense; that is, the courts have decided that when partial payments are made on notes, the payments shall be applied in a certain definite manner.

After pupils haev learned the legal rule they should be given a great many simple problems, so graded that they do not present more than one difficulty at a time. Most arithmetics contain too few problems and go too quickly from simple ones of two or three steps to long and complex ones. It really happens in business that examples of partial payments are exceedingly long and tedious, but such should not be presented until the pupil has thoroughly mastered every step of the process, and this he can do best through examples in which the numbers have been so chosen that there will be no complications in figures. As soon, however, as a process is familiar, this topic should be one of those made most real and vital to the pupils. Pupils can bring the data of notes in the possession of their parents, and these data can be made the basis for interesting problems. At the same time a large amount of drill should be given in the writing of legal promissory notes, so no pupil can possibly leave the subject until he knows what are the essentials of a valid note and what is the legal phraseology. It is an instance of poor teaching for a pupil to leave the grammar school and not be able to write a legal note or to detect the flaws in notes that are not valid.

55. Banking and Commercial Paper. The pupil does not need to know the technical phases of banking, but he does need to know how to open a bank account, how to write a check, how to keep his own bank account balanced at all times, how to write a note, how to write a receipt, how to write the various forms of "commercial paper," as notes, checks, drafts, etc., are called. Any bank will gladly furnish the teacher with examples of all these business forms for use in the class. Pupils need to know how to deposit money at a bank, make out the deposit slip to accompany the currency, coins and checks presented for deposit. They should know that checks deposited at the bank are not money, but are forms of credit, and that the bank simply agrees to send these checks back to the bank on which they were issued and thus collect the account for the depositor and place the money to his credit in the bank where he has made the deposit.

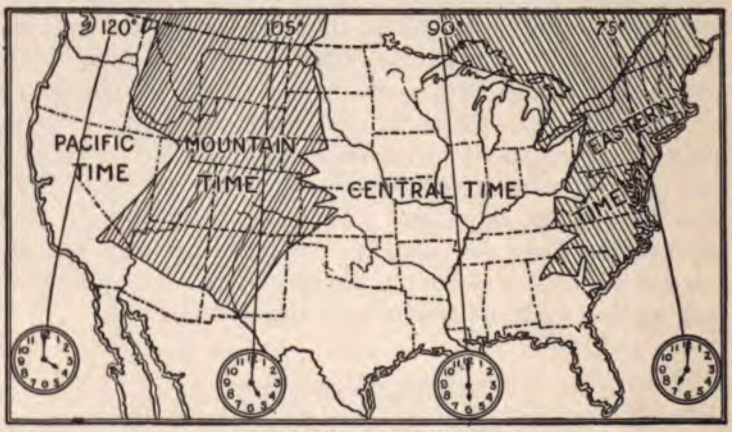
The only other phase of banking which need be considered in the grammar grades is that of borrowing money from a bank. Here, by careful explanation, a teacher can avoid confusion, if she lays stress upon the fact that ordinary bank discount is interest on the amount which is to be collected at the maturity of the note and that this interest is collected in advance under the name of bank discount. Naturally, if the note which is discounted does not bear interest, the face of the note is the base upon which the discount is reckoned. If the note bears interest, the basis upon which the discount is reckoned is the amount of the note at maturity. Another phase of this subject arises when a person wishes to borrow a certain sum from a bank. He must then make out his note for a larger sum, including whatever interest the bank charges, in advance. However, the practice in banks is not uniform, and frequently if a man wishes to borrow money at the bank he is told that in order to get a certain sum he must make out his note for another certain sum which is not necessarily the exact amount as determined by the ordinary rules of bank discount. In a majority of states days of grace are no longer allowed. The teacher should find out what is the local practice and then have the pupils solve examples accordingly.

56. Paying Money at a Distance. While the class is studying the subject of exchange, or rather, in advance of that time, instruction should be given in other common methods by which money may be sent to a distance. Besides the methods by check and bank draft, referred to above, money may be sent safely through the post office and through express companies. The teacher should go to the post office or send some one of her pupils to obtain the blanks which are necessary, to learn how and at what expense letters may be registered and how money may be sent by post office money-order. Postmasters are so much troubled by the ignorance of people who wish to send money that they are usually very glad to give out the information and will supply all the blanks that are necessary to make classes understand the processes.

LONGITUDE AND TIME

57. The Comparison. If in the geography classes the pupils are taught what longitude is and then understand the changes of day and night that are brought about by the rotation of the earth upon its axis, there will be no difficulty in giving the arithmetical knowledge necessary in order to compare longitude and time. In some of the older arithmetics much is included under this head that may profitably be omitted, yet some few facts are important. The pupils must know that at any given moment places lying to the east of a given point show time later in the day, and places west of that given point show time earlier in the day. For every fifteen degrees of difference in longitude a difference of one hour of time is made. Knowing the difference of longitude, the difference of time may easily be ascertained. When pupils understand this thoroughly and can find the difference in time, they have all the arithmetical knowledge necessary; but there are two other subjects that are so intimately connected with this that the facts concerning them should be made known. As these are not given in all arithmetics, they are discussed briefly in the next two sections.

58. Standard Time. In so large a country as the United States the difference in time occasioned by difference in longitude naturally bred much confusion among the railroads; so in 1883 a standard time system was introduced by them and adopted very generally by the people. Certain meridians fifteen degrees apart, beginning at sixty degrees west of Greenwich, have been established as standard meri-



STANDARD TIME BELTS

dians, and places seven and one-half degrees east or seven and one-half degrees west of the standard meridian are said to have the same time as that on the standard meridian. Trains traveling east or west change the time one hour at a point near to this standard meridian.

Standard time is exact time only on the standard meridians; at places seven and one-half degrees east or west of the standard meridian it varies a half hour from actual time. Convenient as standard time may be to the railways, it is in places midway between standard meridians somewhat inconvenient. Towns located in such longitude frequently keep two times, known as sun time and standard time. Chicago and New York are so near the established meridians that each keeps standard time exclusively.

59. International Date Line. If a person were to travel completely around the earth from west to east he would appear to gain a day; if he should travel completely around from east to west he would appear to lose a day. This fact would bring about a great deal of confusion, especially among sailors, were it not for the fact that nations have agreed to call the meridian 180° W. from Greenwich the *international date line*, or the place from which the days start. Vessels going east will count the day on which they reach the meridian 180° W. twice, and vessels going west will skip one day as they cross this international date line. For instance, if a ship sailing west crosses the line on a Monday, the next day is Wednesday; if sailing east it crosses the line on Monday, it counts the next day Monday also.[1]

60. Mensuration. During the latter part of the seventh school year, mensuration should be introduced. Of course, ever since long and square measure were introduced in the primary grades, the pupil has had preliminary lessons. He already knows square, rectangle, circle, triangle and sphere, by visualization, and knows how to find the area of a rectangle. From the beginning of the first grade the pupil should have concrete experiences. His lessons in drawing, clay modeling, paper folding and elementary hand work all necessitate a simple knowledge of forms. All this will help him now. The following outline embraces the work that should be undertaken the latter part of the seventh school year:

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[1] While theoretically the date should change on the 180th meridian, for practical purposes the line is extended eastward about 20° on the 52d parallel in north latitude so as to include the entire group of the Aleutian Islands in the same date; and it extends eastward about the same distance on the 43rd parallel, south latitude, to include the New Zealand group of islands.

Many teachers fail in teaching mensuration because they are not well grounded in the fundamental principles underlying it. They have studied mensuration by committing rules to memory. They have failed to visualize the various geometrical figures, and hence cannot see the relations of various terms they must use; nor can they see, with the mental eye, the relations of the different lines, surfaces, and solids involved in the many problems presented to them. Use your imagination and fix in your mind clearly the pictures to be seen in every geometrical figure, and the difficulties vanish. It is worth far more to be able to make a rule or formula than to be able merely to remember one some one else has made. Strive to master this subject so thoroughly that you can evolve your own formulas when occasion calls for them. Don't try to commit to memory the formulas presented in these lessons. If you get into the very heart of this subject you will doubtless be able to formulate many equations not thought of by the writer in the preparation of this outline.

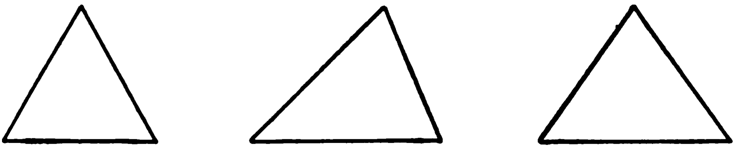
Certain terms you must know thoroughly. Simply to *think* you know them will not do. While a knowledge of geometry is very valuable to every one who would master mensuration, it is not absolutely essential. The writer would, however, advise every teacher to secure a good text in geometry and pursue the study as far as possible.

61. Mensuration of Surfaces. The following outline may help you.

1. Surface defined. Kinds of surfaces. Plane surfaces. Curved surfaces.

2. General terms and definitions. Point, line, plane figure, length, breadth, surface or area, polygon, regular, perimeter, base, apothem, altitude, similar, homologous, vertical, perpendicular, angle, right, oblique, acute, obtuse. (If possible, define each term and verify your definition.)

Classification of plane surfaces.



Equilateral Scalene Isosceles

TRIANGLES

3. (a) TRIANGLES.

Definition.—Plane figures bounded by three straight lines.

Kinds:

(1) Right triangles.— Having one right angle. (A right angle is one of 90°. The sum of the three angles of any triangle is equal to two right angles, or 180°.)

(2) Isosceles.— Having two equal sides, hence two equal angles, of 45° each.

(3) Scalene.— Having three unequal angles and unequal sides.

(4) Oblique triangles.— Having no right angles.

(5) Obtuse.— Having one angle greater than a right angle.

(6) Isosceles.— Having two equal sides, hence, two angles each less than a right angle.

(7) Scalene.— In which the angles are all unequal, two of which are each less than a right angle, one greater than a right angle.

(8) Acute.— In which no angle is a right angle, but each is less than a right angle.

(9) Isosceles.— In which two of the sides are equal.

(10) Scalene.— No two sides equal.

(11) Equilateral.— All three sides equal, hence all three angles equal. (Each angle 60°.)

(b) QUADRILATERALS.

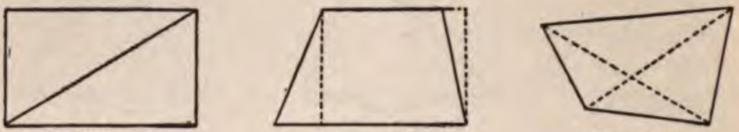
Definition.— Plane figures bounded by four straight lines.

Kinds:

(1) Trapezium.— No two sides parallel.

(2) Trapezoid.— Has two sides parallel.

(3) Parallelograms.— Have two pairs of parallel sides, which may or may not form right angles.


Parallelogram — Trapezoid — Trapezium

QUADRILATERALS

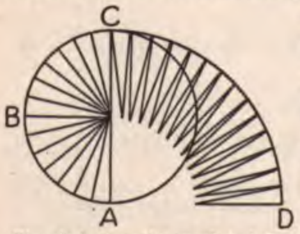
(4) Rhomboid.— Whose angles are not right angles, and its adjacent sides are not necessarily equal.

(5) Rhombus.— An equilateral rhomboid; two angles less than right angles and two greater than right angles.

(6) Rectangle.— All its angles are right angles, but its adjacent sides are not necessarily equal.

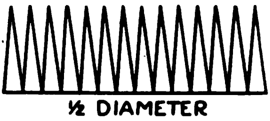
(7) Square.— An equilateral rectangle; its angles are all right angles and its sides equal.

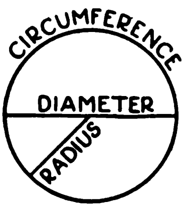
(c) THE CIRCLE. The circle should be studied after the triangle has been well mastered. The circle is made up of an infinite number of triangles. To find the area of a circle is simply to find the area of all the triangles of which the circle is composed. We have learned that the area of a triangle is found by multiplying the base by half the altitude, or is simply half the product of base and altitude. The triangles in the circle have the radius as their altitude and the circumference as their combined bases. Then, the circumference multiplied by half the radius, or one-fourth the diameter, will give the area of the circle.

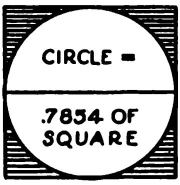


The circle is made up of an infinite number of triangles.

To illustrate this, let the student make a circle of cardboard, cut it into semi-circles, and then cut each semicircle into small triangles, having the center of the circle their common apex. The bases will be slightly rounded, but if there were an infinite number of these triangles their bases would be infinitely small, hence their bases may be considered straight lines. Take the triangles from each semi-circle and by means of mucilage attach them by their bases to a flat shoestring. Now you can put these sawtoothed figures together, one fitting into the other, and you will have a parallelogram. The length will be half the circumference of the circle and the width will be the radius. Then the area $=\frac{1}{2}C\times\frac{1}{2}D$, or $(C\times D)\div 4$. But the C is 3.1416 or π times the diameter. This may be demonstrated approximately without higher mathematics. Let the pupil measure accurately the circumference and the diameter of a number of circular objects of different sizes. Now let him divide the circumference of each by its diameter, and he will observe that the quotients are all practically the same, and approximately 3.1416. This being understood, the following formulas may be readily developed: $S=\frac{1}{2}C\times\frac{1}{2}D$; or $S=C\times\frac{1}{2}R$; or $S=(C\times D)\div 4$; but since $C=D\times 3.1416$, $S=(D\times 3.1416\times D)\div 4$; or by cancelling, $S=D^2\times .7854$, the formula given in most arithmetics. Then, $D=\sqrt{(S\div .7854)}$; or $D=\sqrt{(S\times 1\frac{1}{8})}$; or $C=\sqrt{(S\times 12.5664)}$; or $C=\sqrt{[(S\div .7854)\times 3.1416]}$. D = Dl of inscribed square; then side of inscribed square $=\sqrt{(D^2\div 2)}$; S of inscribed square $=D^2\div 2$; but $D^2=$ area of circumscribed square. Then S of circumscribed square = twice S of inscribed square. H of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle $=\frac{3}{4}D$; then $\frac{3}{4}D\div .866=$ side of inscribed equilateral triangle. (See







lesson on the triangle.) But $\frac{3}{4}D \div .866 = (D \times .75) \div .866$, or $.75D \div .866$. This is equal to $D \times .866$, because $.75 = .866^2$, since .866 is the square root of $\frac{3}{4}$. Hence, $D \times .866$ = side of inscribed equilateral triangle. S of inscribed equilateral triangle $= (D \times .866)^2 \times .433$. But by substitution this equals $\frac{3}{4}D \times D \times .433$; this in turn $= D^2 \times .32475$. Then S of inscribed equilateral triangle $= D^2 \times \frac{3}{4}$ of .433; and the S of a circumscribed equilateral triangle $= D^2 \times 1.299$. Then a circumscribed equilateral triangle is four times the size of the inscribed equilateral triangle. Its side will be twice as long. This may be shown by drawing. Also, side or B of circumscribed equilateral triangle $= \sqrt{(D^2 \times 3)}$, because $B = \sqrt{(S \div .433)}$, and since $S = D^2 \times 1.299$. (1.299 is 3 times .433, or $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$, or $3.2 \times \sqrt{.75}$.) Then B of circumscribed equilateral triangle $= \sqrt{(D^2 \times 1.299 \div .433)}$, or $\sqrt{(D^2 \times 3)}$.

62. The Shorthand of Mensuration. In solving problems in mensuration it is convenient to indicate much of the work, and this makes abbreviations for certain terms necessary. Let the student learn thoroughly the following abbreviations used in the formulas for the solutions of problems in mensuration of surfaces:

B = base, or larger base; b = smaller base; L = length: H = height or altitude; W = width; S = surface, or area; D = diameter, or larger diameter; d = smaller diameter; R = radius; Dl = diagonal, or greater diagonal; dl = less diagonal; C = circumference; P = perimeter; Per. = perpendicular; $\pi = 3.1416$; $\frac{1}{4}\pi = .7854$.

In this grade the formula for finding the area of a circle may be omitted if found difficult for the class. However, when properly explained with the aid of diagrams and circles cut out of paper it becomes quite simple and ought not to offer any difficulties.

It should be the aim of the teacher in this grade to confine the work to the rectangle. But in order to find the diagonal of the rectangle the pupil needs to know something about square root. This is the first time in the course of study when the pupil has needed to know anything about this subject. This, then, is the time to introduce him to it.

63. Square Root. After pupils understand the meaning of roots and are able to find any root of simple numbers easily factorable, a method may be presented for finding the square root of a number which is not easily factorable. There are two ways of introducing this subject; one is the algebraic method, and the other may be called the method by diagram. Each of the two results in the development of the same rule, and they are sufficiently explained in most arithmetics. While at the beginning it may be wise to confine the attention of the class to the development of the rule, the ultimate aim of the teacher should be the understanding of the underlying principles. Pupils should be kept at the demonstration until the rule is clearly developed, and then they should be led to learn the rule and should practice its use until it becomes thoroughly automatic. The following explanation shows how the rule should be applied and shows the best form for the work:

Extract the square root of 55225.

Pointing the number off into periods of two figures each (5′52′25), we find that there are three periods and consequently know there will be three figures in the root.

We see that in the left-hand period, 5, the largest perfect square is 4, of which the square root is 2.

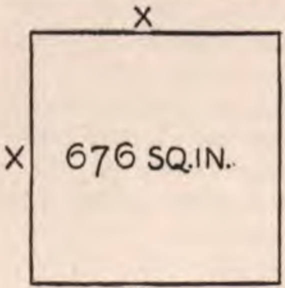
Write the example thus:

5′52′25 | 2
4 (placing the square of the first figure of the root under the first period in the power.)
152 (subtracting, and bringing down the second period.)

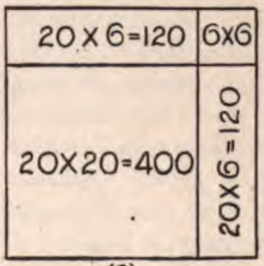
Making a trial divisor by taking twice the root already found (2×2=4), we find it contained in 15 about 3 times, the second figure in the root. Annexing this figure to the trial divisor, we have 43 for the complete divisor. Multiplying this by the second figure of the root and subtracting from the dividend, we have 23 for a remainder, to which we annex the last period in the root, making 2325 for the new dividend. Keep the example in this form:

```
                 5'52'25'  |235
                 4
      2×2=4   |  1 52
          3   |
         43   |  1 29
   2×23=46    |  23 25
          5   |
        465   |  23 25
```

Making a second trial divisor by taking twice the root already found (2×23=46), we find it contained in 2325 about 5 times, which we may place temporarily as the third figure in the root. Completing the trial divisor by annexing this 5, the third figure of the root, we have 465 as the complete second divisor. Multiplying this by 5, the third figure in the quotient, we find it to be the correct number, for there is no remainder this time, and 235 is the square root of 55,225.



(1)



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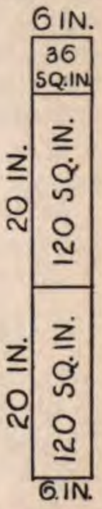


64. Explanation of Square Root. Suppose we desire to extract the square root of 676. This means, concretely, "What is the length of the side of a square whose area is 676 square inches?" The length required will be expressed by the square root of 676. Let us draw a square representing 676 square inches.

Figure (1) represents the square whose side is to be found. We can see by inspection that the side must be greater than 20 and less than 30, because the square of 20 is 400 and the square of 30 is 900. Let us, then, take a 20-inch square out of the square (1) and we have a square 20 inches on a side with an area of 400 square inches. But the area of the square in Figure 1 is 676 square inches. $676-400=276$, the number of square inches the remaining strips on two sides must contain. We know this strip is 20 inches long but we do not know how wide it is. If each strip is 20 inches long, the length of the two would be 40 inches. The area of these two strips plus the small square on the corner is 276 square inches. If we knew its width we would subtract the area of this small square from 276 and divide the remainder by 40. The quotient would be the width of each of the two 20-inch strips, and likewise the side of the small square. But we do know that the strip is *longer* than 40 by exactly the width of the strip. We use 40 as a trial divisor and find it is contained in 276 more than 6 times, but less than 7 times. We know, also, that 276 square inches is *more* than the area of the two 20-inch strips, so we know that 6 is the highest number we need to try for the width. By using it as a trial number, we find the area of the small square is 36. This deducted from the 276 leaves 240, which when divided by 40 gives 6 as the width of the two long strips, and likewise the side of the small square. Hence, the length of the large square, Figure (1), must be $20+6$, or 26 inches. In this way we find that 26 is the *square root* of 676.

65. Applications of Square Root. This principle can be demonstrated in several ways, but the application of square root to the solution of the right-angled triangle is probably one of the nicest demonstrations in mathematics. It is known as the Pythagorean Theorem, because Pythagoras was first to demonstrate it. However, there are now many ways in which the theorem may be demonstrated. The theorem is this:

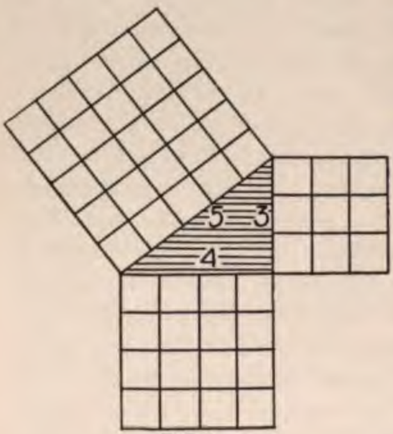


FIG. I

The square inscribed on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares inscribed on the base and on the altitude, or height.

Hence, to find the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, we square the base, square the height, add them together and extract the square root.

In Figure 1 it will be seen that the square of the base is 16, the number of small squares in the square inscribed on the base. The square of 3 is 9, the number of small squares in the square inscribed upon the height. 16+9=25, the number of small squares in the square inscribed upon the hypotenuse.

But how do we *know* that the hypotenuse is 5 inches? Teach the pupils to use an ordinary carpenter's square, lay it on a flat surface, mark off a distance of 3 inches vertically from the "square corner," and 4 inches horizontally from the "square corner," (right angle), and then measure accurately the distance between the two points. It will be found to be exactly 5 inches.

Likewise right-angled triangles of the following dimensions may be marked off in a similar manner:

ALTITUDE	BASE	HYPOTENUSE
3	4	5
6	8	10

ALTITUDE	BASE	HYPOTENUSE
9	12	15
12	16	20
15	20	25
18	24	30
21	28	35
24	32	40
27	36	45
30	40	50

But the pupils might question the universal application of this principle if we should stop here. It remains to be seen whether any right-angled triangle whose hypotenuse is ***not*** a multiple of 5 and whose base and height respectively are ***not*** multiples of 4 and 3, will follow this principle. Let the teacher use the following illustration:

Take any right-angled triangle, as the triangle *a*; lay it off on a piece of cardboard and the square on its hypotenuse, *h*. Cut this square so as to have four triangles exactly like the triangle *a*. It will be noticed that there is a small square, *e*, left in the center of the large square, (Figure 1). By changing the position of these 5 pieces of cardboard we have the figure as shown in Figure 2. This second figure now becomes the *sum of the squares on the*

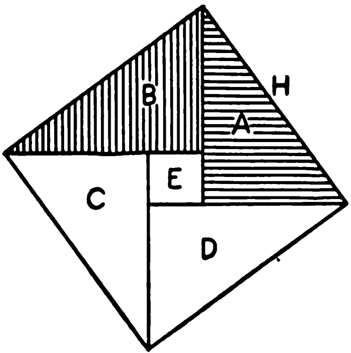


FIG. 1

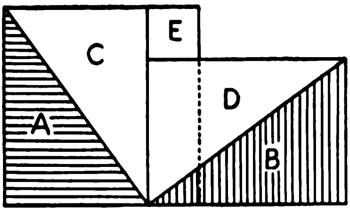
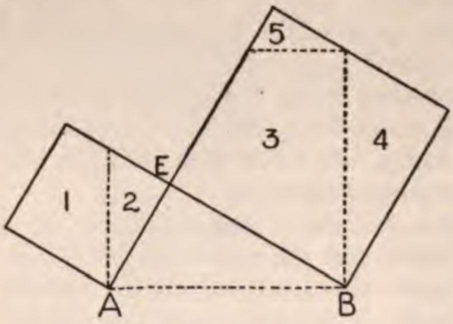


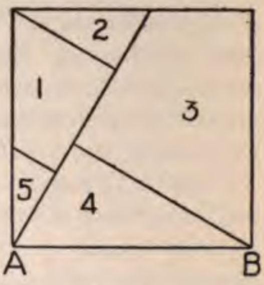
FIG. 2

other two sides, while Figure 1 is the square on the hypotenuse. Since they are exactly equal, the truth of the proposition is clearly evident.

Another demonstration or proof may be given here, especially valuable when the triangle has no two equal sides and when the sides are not in the ratios given for right-angled triangles whose sides are all whole numbers.

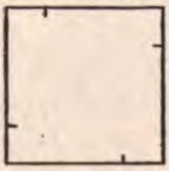
Let *E-A-B* be the right-angled triangle, with *A-B* the hypotenuse. Draw the square on *E-B* and also the square on *E-A*. Cut these pieces out of cardboard and number them 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. Rearrange them as in the figure to the right, and it will be discovered that a new square has been constructed, and this square is the square of *A-B*, the hypotenuse. Since the pieces fit perfectly and there is no piece left over, *the sum of the squares on base and height is equal to the square on the hypotenuse.*

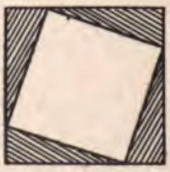


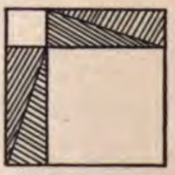


Draw two equal squares, as 1 and 2 in the illustration below. From any corner of 2, going around in the same direction, lay off equal distances by dots. Connect these

1


2


3


4

dots as in 3, and shade the triangles thus laid off. Apply these triangles to 1 so as to make 4. You will notice that 3 contains one square and four equal right triangles; 4 contains two squares and four equal right triangles. How do the right triangles in 4 compare in size with those in 3? The square in 3 is the square upon which side of the right triangle? The large square in 4 is the square upon which side of the right triangle? The small square in 4 is the square upon which side of the right triangle? Prove that the area of these two squares is equal to the area of the square in 3.

Construct other triangles of different sizes. Do these, when measured, prove the same principle?

This principle may be applied in a variety of examples which will give the pupils excellent practice drill in measuring. They can find the diagonals of windows, doors, desks, books, etc., from actual measurement.

EIGHTH YEAR

66. Review. The work of the preceding year should be carefully reviewed, especially the work in mensuration as applied to the rectangle and to the right-angled triangle. The work outlined in mensuration and square root for the seventh grade may be postponed until the eighth grade, but ordinarily all the work outlined under these two heads can be successfully taught in the seventh grade.

The eighth year is the last one of the elementary school years and a large number of pupils will get no farther. Emphasis, therefore, should be placed upon practical phases of arithmetic, especially on practical measurements in mensuration, commercial forms, simple exercises in bookkeeping, and a great variety of vocational problems. While no work is outlined in vocational problems for the seventh grade, it is best for the teacher to work along the lines suggested for grades five and six, but especially to give much time to the subject in the eighth grade.

67. Mensuration Continued. Following the review of the principles in the outline given on pages 84-89, and the work on the square and the right-angled triangle, the course should proceed as follows:

(a) RECTANGLE. $S=B\times W$; $B=S\div W$; $W=S\div B$; $Dl=\sqrt{(B^2+W^2)}$; or $Dl=\sqrt{(L^2+W^2)}$. If a square: $S=L^2$; $Dl=\sqrt{(L^2\times 2)}$; $S=Dl^2\div 2$; S of inscribed circle$=L^2\times .7854$; S of circumscribed circle$=Dl^2\times .7854$; or $L^2\times 1.5708$, or S of inscribed circle$\times 2$.

Rectangles are said to be similar when their dimensions, length and width, increase or decrease by the same ratio. To illustrate: Suppose the sides of a rectangle are as 3 to 4, and the area 3 acres, to find the dimensions. A rectangle 3 by 4 rods is similar to the whole rectangle. 3 acres = 480 sq. rods. $480\div 12=40$, the number of smaller rectangles contained in the larger. Since the length of the smaller rectangle is contained into the length of the larger one the same number of times the width of the smaller one is contained into the width of the larger, we see that this number 40 is the square of their ratio; hence, $\sqrt{40}=\sqrt{(4\times 10)}$ or $2\sqrt{10}$, the unit of partition. The supposed dimensions, 3 and 4, multiplied by this unit of partition, will give the true dimensions. $2\sqrt{10}\times 3=6\sqrt{10}$, width; $2\sqrt{10}\times 4=8\sqrt{10}$, length. Hence, to find the dimensions of a rectangle from its area and the ratio of its dimensions:

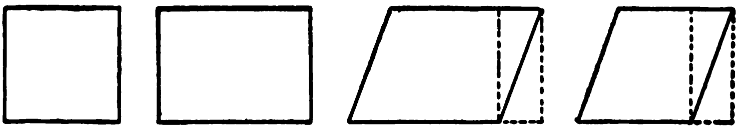
Divide the S of the rectangle by the product of the partitive ratios of its dimensions. Extract the square root of this quotient for the unit of partition. Multiply the unit of partition by the ratios.

(b) QUADRILATERALS. The relationships of these figures should be studied. The use of the terms *quadrilateral, rectangle, parallelogram, rhombus, rhomboid, trapezium* and *trapezoid* should be clearly defined by visualization.

Quadrilateral is from two words meaning "four sides," and any figure bounded by four straight lines is a quadrilateral, regardless of the length of the lines or the angles they may form.

Rectangle is from two words meaning "straight (or right) angles." A right angle is one of 90°; hence a rectangle has only right angles. Let four equal angles be drawn or extended from a single point and each will be a right angle. To be a rectangle a figure does not need to be a square, but may be any length and any width. It will be seen that the opposite sides must be parallel; hence, opposite sides of a rectangle are always equal.

A square, then, is a rectangle, but a rectangle is not necessarily a square. Each is a *parallelogram,* because each has two sets of parallel sides. Let the pupil now make sure he sees the relations of these four terms: Quadrilateral, parallelogram, rectangle, square. Each of these terms is subordinate to all the preceding terms in the order named. But we find, by consulting the outline in our first lesson, that some quadrilaterals are not parallelograms, and that some parallelograms are not rectangles.


Square **Rectangle** **Rhomboid** **Rhombus**

QUADRILATERALS

The *trapezium* is a quadrilateral but not a parallelogram; likewise, is the *trapezoid.* But they differ from each other, hence are two distinct forms of quadrilaterals. The trapezoid has two sides parallel but unequal, while the trapezium has no parallel sides, but may have three sides equal, two sides equal, or all sides unequal.

The pupil *must* be able to draw any of these figures without hesitation and without the assistance of a book.

68. Summary. We now see that there are three forms, or classes, of the quadrilateral — parallelogram, trapezium, and trapezoid. Further investigation shows us that parallelograms alone are further subdivided. If the angles of a parallelogram are all right angles, the figure is a *rectangle*;

if they are not right angles, the figure must be either a rhombus or a rhomboid. If the sides are equal but the angles are not right-angles the figure is a ***rhombus***; but if one set of parallel sides is longer than the other set, the figure is a ***rhomboid***. The angles of the rhombus and rhomboid are not fixed. Illustrate this by taking the framework of a box, without bottom or top, and crushing it a little to one side, and still a little more, and you see that the figure is still a rhombus or a rhomboid, as in the first place, and note also that the area decreases as the distance between the parallel sides (altitude) decreases, until the framework is crushed flat, when the area practically vanishes.

69. Formulas and Solutions. (a) RHOMBUS. $S = L \times H$ (here H means altitude, or perpendicular distance between bases); $Dl = 2S \div \text{other } Dl$. The pupil should see that the product of the two diagonals, which cross each other at right angles in the center of the rhombus, would give the area of a rectangle just twice as large as the rhombus; hence, S = half the product of the diagonals. Side or $L = \surd[(Dl \div 2)^2 + (dl \div 2)^2]$ or $L = \surd[(S \div Dl^2) + (Dl \div 2)^2]$. Let the pupil draw the figure and discover why the length, or side, is found in this way when area and greater diagonal are known.

(b) RHOMBOID. $S = L \times H$; $L = S \div H$; $H = S \div L$. When one diagonal and the altitude from that diagonal to the opposite vertices are known, then the rhomboid is cut into two equal triangles whose bases and altitudes are known. Hence, S of each triangle $= (Dl \times H) \div 2$, and since there are two equal triangles, we may find the area of the rhomboid by multiplying the given diagonal by the altitude of the triangle.

(c) TRAPEZIUM. The length of each of the four sides and one diagonal must be known to find the area; or the area may be found from the sides and each altitude to the same diagonal. (Here the pupil should construct the figure and see how this would be.) If the sides and one diagonal are given, and the altitudes to that diagonal are not known, solve as two irregular triangles.

(d) TRAPEZOID. Has two sides which are equal. $S = [(B+b) \div 2] \times H$; or S = Sum of the parallel sides × half the perpendicular distance between them. Let the pupil construct the figure and demonstrate the first equation above. Draw a line half way between the parallel sides, cutting the trapezoid into two parts. Swing the top portion around until the upper base joins the lower base, thus forming a parallelogram, whose length is half the sum of the bases.

To find the length of a line parallel to the bases of a trapezoid that shall divide it into equal areas: square the bases and extract the square root of half their sum.

70. Problems. 1. Find the area of a rhombus whose side is 10 ft. and altitude 8 ft.

2. The area of a rhombus is 40 sq. rd. The longer diagonal is 10 rods; what is the shorter diagonal?

3. The perimeter of a rhombus is 60 inches; the altitude is 10 inches; what is the area?

4. How much two-inch lumber is in the floor of a bridge in the shape of a rhomboid 24 ft. long and 8 ft. wide?

5. A board is 18 inches wide at one end and 25 inches at the other; its length is 24 ft.; how many sq. ft. in it?

6. Find the area of a trapezoidal field whose parallel sides are 100 and 70 rd. respectively, and altitude 56 rd.

7. How far from the larger end must the plank in the 5th problem be cut in order that half the plank may be in each piece?

8. What is the length of the line cutting this board into two equal areas, the line running parallel with the ends?

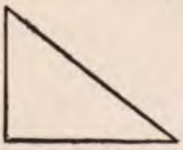
9. One diagonal of a trapezium is 20 ft., and the altitudes to this diagonal are $9\frac{1}{8}$ ft. and $8\frac{1}{8}$ ft. respectively. Find the area of the trapezium.

10. The area of a rhombus is 8 acres; the longer diagonal is 69 rods; what is the perimeter?

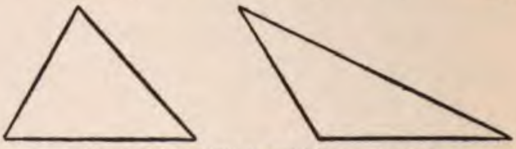
11. The sides of a trapezium are 40, 50, 60 and 80 inches. The diagonal from the angle formed by the first two sides named to the opposite angle is 100 inches. Find area of trapezium.

71. Triangles. The triangle is one of the most interesting geometrical figures. The student should review the outline on the triangle as presented in the first lesson. Remember that the sum of any two sides of a triangle must be greater than the remaining side. Sometimes teachers are "caught" on such a problem (?) as this: Find the area of a triangle whose sides are 20, 40, and 60 inches. (What is wrong?)

Demonstrate the fact that any triangle is one-half the smallest parallelogram in which it can be inscribed. Show why it might not be correct to say "rectangle" instead of "parallelogram." Take a triangle cut from cardboard and divide it by a line parallel with the base and half the perpendicular from base to apex. This line will also be half the length of the base. Cut off the small triangle thus formed and place it by the side of the part remaining, using one end of the dividing line as a hinge. You will then have a parallelogram whose length is the base of the original triangle and whose height is one-half the altitude of that triangle. To find the area of a parallelogram, multiply the length by the altitude. Therefore, the area of any triangle is equal to the product of the base by half the altitude, or half the product of base and altitude.



RIGHT TRIANGLE

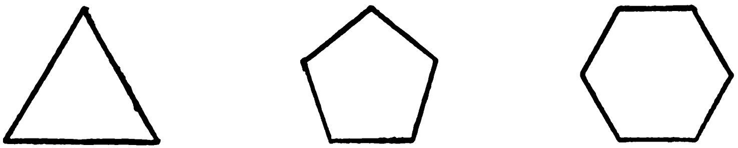


TRIANGLES WITH UNEQUAL SIDES

(a) FORMULAS. The above principle and demonstration are fundamental. Then these formulas are easily understood: $S=(B\times H)\div 2$; or $S=B\times\frac{1}{2}H$; $B=2S\div H$; $H=2S\div B$.

(b) RIGHT-ANGLED TRIANGLE. Demonstrate the relation of the hypotenuse to the other two sides. Let the pupils see if they can cut from a square formed on the hypotenuse two smaller squares that will be the squares on the base and perpendicular. Hyp. $= \sqrt{(B^2+H^2)}$; $B = \sqrt{(Hyp^2-H^2)}$; $H = \sqrt{(Hyp^2-B^2)}$; $S = (B \times H$ or $Per) \div 2$; shortest line from right angle to hypotenuse $= (B \times Per) \div Hyp$; side of largest square inscribed $= (B \times Per) \div (B + Per)$. Show by diagram why this is true.

(c) EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE. $H = \sqrt{(B^2 - \frac{1}{2}B^2)}$; or if B be 1, $H = \sqrt{(1^2 - \frac{1}{2}^2)}$, or $\sqrt{.75}$, which is .866. This decimal is a working basis in the solution of the equilateral triangle. Then $H = B \times .866$; $S = B \times \frac{1}{2}H$; then $S = B \times \frac{1}{2}(B \times .866)$, which is equal to $B^2 \times .433$, or $B^2 \times \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$; $\frac{1}{2}S = H^2 \div 1.732$. Then $B = \sqrt{(S \div .433)}$; B or side $= H \div .866$; R of inscribed circle $= 2S \div 3B$; or $2S \div P$; or $\frac{1}{3}S \div \frac{1}{2}B$. The pupil will need to draw the figure for each problem, then these formulas become very simple. R of circumscribed circle $= B^3 \div 4S$; (Why?) B of circumscribed equilat. triangle $= D \times 1.732$, which is twice .866; hence, S of an equilateral triangle circumscribed about a circle is four times the S of an equilateral triangle inscribed in the same circle. Let the pupil develop fully each equation above. Why does $2S \div 3B = R$ of an inscribed circle? How far from the middle of the base is the center of an equilateral triangle? What fractional part of the altitude of an equilateral triangle is the radius of the circumscribed circle?



Triangle Pentagon Hexagon

POLYGONS

72. Problems. 1. A triangle whose base is 10 inches and altitude 6 inches is divided into two equal areas by a line parallel with the base. How long is the dividing line? What is the altitude of the triangle cut off?

2. Two men start from Columbus, one going north 30 miles, the other going east 40 miles. How far are they

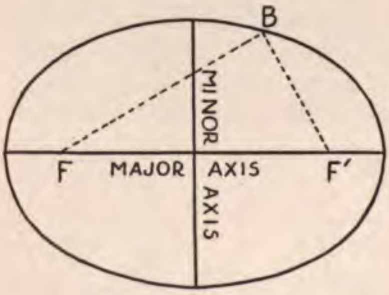
apart? What is the shortest distance from Columbus to the line joining them?

3. Find the side of the largest square inscribed in a right-angled triangle whose base is 15 inches and perpendicular height 10 inches.

4. The area of an equilateral triangle is 10 acres. What is the side? The altitude?

5. Find the side of the largest equilateral triangle that can be inscribed in a circle 10 inches in diameter.

73. Ellipse. We have seen that the area of a circle is $D^2 \times .7854$. But D^2 = the area of the smallest square in which a circle can be inscribed. Then, the area of a circle is .7854 of the area of its circumscribed square. The same principle holds in the ellipse. It makes no difference how nearly circular or how flat the ellipse may be, $D \times d$ is simply the product of two diameters drawn at right angles. But in the ellipse one diameter is longer than the other. Then $D \times d \times .7854$ = the area of any ellipse. $D = (S \div .7854) \div d$; $d = (S \div .7854) \div D$; or $D = S \div (d \times .7854)$; or $d = S \div (D \times .7854)$.



ELLIPSE

74. Problems. 1. A pole put to the bottom of a lake was found to reach 6 feet above the water; when the top was moved to one side a distance of 20 ft. the end just passed under the surface. How deep was the water?

2. The area of an ellipse is 62.832 sq. in.; its transverse diameter is 8 inches; find longitudinal diameter.

3. The distance of a chord 8 ft. long is 3 feet from the center of the circle. Find diameter of circle.

4. Three men are to share a 16-inch grindstone equally. The aperture being 4 inches square, how much of the radius should each grind off? (Use π and indicate work.)

5. Find the side and area of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a 10-inch circle.

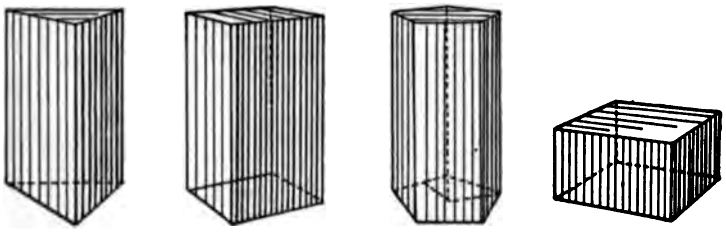
6. From a circular disc of copper 12 inches in diameter three equal circles of largest possible size are cut. Find diameter of each and the area of the part enclosed by the three about the center of the large circle.

7. Find the size and altitude of the smallest equilateral triangle circumscribed about a 10-inch circle.

8. Find the area of an ellipse cutting the earth from pole to pole, the diameters of the earth being 7899 and 7925 miles.

9. Find the diameter of a circle circumscribed about a triangle whose sides are 12, 15, and 18 inches.

10. Three men live at the corners of a triangular field whose sides are 20, 25, and 30 rods. How far from each must they dig a well that shall be equidistant from each?



PRISMS

Triangular Rectangular Pentagonal Short Rectangular

75. Solids. We now take up the study of solids. The pupil should first make sure of certain terms and definitions. He should see clearly that a line is simply the path of a moving point; that a plane is the path of a moving line; and that a solid may be the path of a moving plane, or it may not be. A solid is a portion of space bounded by one or more surfaces. The solid is the space (geometrically speaking) and not the material that occupies the space. Volume is simply the quantity of space a solid occupies. The least number of plane surfaces that can enclose a solid is four, such a figure being a tetrahedron. A triangular pyramid is a tetrahedron, while a triangular prism has five plane surfaces and is a pentahedron. All plane solids are called *polyhedrons* — *poly* meaning many, and *edron* or *hedron*, faces. The prefixes denoting four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten faces are *tetra*, *penta*, *hexa*, *hepta*, *octa*, *nona*, and *deka*, respectively. The pupil should construct, at least mentally, each of these figures.

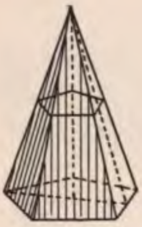
AN OUTLINE FOR SOLIDS

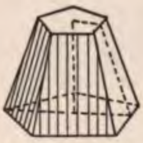
(a) TERMS TO DEFINE. Plane, volume, solid, base, face, edge, polygon, polyhedron, vertex, apex, similar.

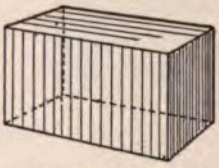
(b) PRISMS.— Right end oblique.

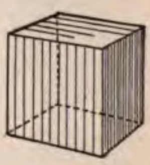
Right prisms — define and illustrate.

Triangular.— Bases must be equal and parallel, with corresponding sides equal and parallel. The three other faces are parallelograms, but not parallel, and not necessarily equal.


PYRAMID


FRUSTUM OF PYRAMID


PARALLELOPIPED


CUBE

Quadrangular.— Subdivided into.

Cube.— Plane solid, six equal faces.

Parallelopiped.

(c) DEFINITION. A parallelopiped is a plane solid all of whose faces are parallelograms; hence, it could have only six faces, not necessarily equal, but in sets of equal faces, and parallel. A cube is a right parallelopiped, so is a box 2x3x4 feet. Remember, these all come under the head of *Prisms*.

Right parallelopipeds.— The lateral edges are perpendicular to the base.

Oblique parallelopipeds.

Pentagonal (5-sided), Hexagonal (6), etc.

(d) PYRAMIDS.

Define and classify: Triangular, square, rectangular, etc., pyramids being named from their bases.

(e) TERMS. Vertex and apex distinguished; base; altitude; lateral or convex (?) surface; whole surface; frustum.

(f) CONES. (Right circular cones only here considered; revolve a right-angled triangle about its altitude.)

Bases always circular; slant height making any degree from the perpendicular; convex surface; whole surface; volume compared to that of cylinder.

Frustum of a cone; upper and lower bases; mean base; convex surface of a frustum; volume of a frustum.

(g) CYLINDERS.

Path of a rectangular plane revolving about an axis.

Bases; altitude; convex surface; volume.

(h) SPHERE.

Definition; no sub-classes.

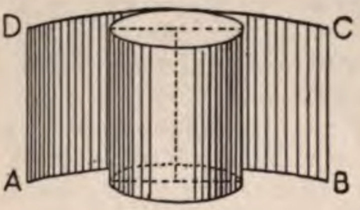
Diameter, circumference, radius, area, volume, tangent, segment, hemisphere, relation of sphere to cube, inscribed and circumscribed.

(i) SPHEROIDS. Oblate, flattened on opposite sides, like an orange; prolate, prolonged on opposite sides, like a lemon. The oblateness or prolateness must be on the diameter used as axis.

76. Abbreviations. L = length; H = height or altitude; W = width; Dl = diagonal; S = surface, or area, or superficial contents; P = perimeter; CS = convex surface; V = volume; B = base, or larger base; b = smaller base; mb = mean base; D = diameter, or larger diameter; d = smaller diameter; C = circumference, or circumference of larger base; c = circumference of smaller base; R = radius; Sl = slant height.

77. The Evolution of Formulas. (a) CUBE. $V = L \times W \times H$; or $S = L \times W \times 6$; or $S = L^2 \times 6$; Dl of one face $= \sqrt{(L^2 \times 3)}$;

$L=\sqrt[3]{V}$; $L=\sqrt{}(S\div 6)$; $L=\sqrt{}(Dl^2\div 3)$; $S=Dl\times 2$; $S=(Dl$ of one face$)^3\times 3$; $V=[\sqrt{}(Dl^2\div 3)]^3$; V of largest inscribed sphere $=L^3\times .5236$. (For demonstration of this, see the formulas under Sphere.) D of circumscribed sphere $=[\sqrt{}(L^2\times 3)]^3\times .5236$.



CYLINDER

A, B, C, D, the rectangle forming the convex surface.

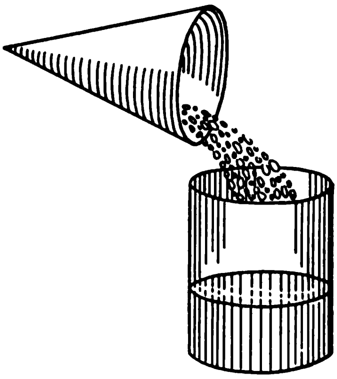
(b) Rectangular Solid. The right parallelopiped; $V=L\times W\times H$; $Dl=V(L^2+W^2+H^2)$; $S=(L\times H\times 2)+(L\times W\times 2)+(W\times H\times 2)$; or $S=[(2L+2W)\times H]+(L\times W\times 2)$; shortest surface distance between two opposite corners $=\sqrt{}[(W+H^2)+L^2]$.

(c) Cylinder. $CS=C\times L$; $CS=L\times D\times\pi$; $S=(C\times L)+[(D^2\times\frac{1}{4}\pi)\times 2]$; length of line required to wrap around spirally once, from end to end $=\sqrt{}(L^2+C^2)$; to wrap twice $=\sqrt{}[(L\div 2)^2+C^2]\times 2$; 3 times $=\sqrt{}[(L\div 3)^2+C^2]\times 3$, etc., for any number of times. V of inscribed sphere when L of cylinder equals $D=L^3\times .5236$. (This is $\frac{1}{6}\pi$. See formula on Sphere.) CS of a cylinder whose L equals its $D=D\times\pi\times D$, which equals $D^2\times\pi$, or $(D^2\times .7854)\times 4$; hence, CS of such a cylinder is equal to the area of four equal circles with D = the D of the cylinder. Then CS of such a cylinder = S of its inscribed sphere. This is quite important.

CONE

FRUSTUM OF CONE

78. The Cone. The cone should be studied in connection with the cylinder. The pupil should determine for himself the relations of the cone to the cylinder. If you have not a set of mensuration blocks and models, get a tin quart-measure, take it to a tinner and have him make you a cone whose base will be exactly the size of the base of the quart measure and whose height will be exactly the height of the quart measure. Use fine sand for measuring purposes. Have your pupils fill the quart measure by using the cone as the measuring vessel, and they will discover that the cylinder has exactly three times the volume of the cone. They have already learned that the volume of a cylinder = $D^2 \times .7854 \times$ altitude. They will now see that the volume of a cone $= D^2 \times .7854 \times \frac{1}{3}$ of the altitude. This is infinitely better than to have them learn the rule merely and apply it blindly in the solution of problems, never inquiring into the real reason. In a similar way have the pupil determine the rule for finding the convex surface of a cone. Let him wrap the cone with paper and cut the paper exactly the size and shape required. Have this paper cone spread out flat and it will be seen that it may be divided into many triangles. The sum of the bases will be the circumference of the cone's base, and the common altitude of the triangles will be the slant height of the cone.



VOLUME OF CONE
The volume of a cone is one-third that of a cylinder having the same base and altitude.

79. Formulas for Solutions. (a) CONE. $CS = (C \times Sl) \div 2$; $CS = (D \times \pi \times Sl) \div 2$; or $CS = D \times Sl \times 1.5708$; $S = CS + S$ of base; $Sl = CS \div \frac{1}{2}C$; $V = S$ of base $\times \frac{1}{3}H$; or $V = D^2 \times .2618 \times H$; $H = V \div (D^2 \times .2618)$; $H = \sqrt{(Sl^2 - R^2)}$; $Sl = \sqrt{(R^2 + H^2)}$.

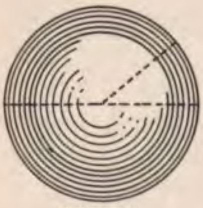
(b) FRUSTUM OF A CONE. $CS = [(C + c) \div 2] \times Sl$; $S = CS + (D^2 \times .7854) + (d^2 \times .7854)$, or the convex surface plus the areas of the bases; $C - c = [CS - (c \times H)] \div \frac{1}{2}H$; S of mb $= \sqrt{[(D^2 \times .7854) \times (d^2 \times .7854)}$; but this equals $\sqrt{(D^2 \times d^2 \times .7854^2)}$, because each factor occurs twice; this, it will readily be seen, equals $D \times d \times \frac{1}{4}\pi$. When the *areas* of the upper and lower bases are known, the area of the mean base is simply the square root of their product. This formula may be stated thus: $mb = \sqrt{(B \times b)}$, where mb, B and b mean areas. Then the volume $=(B+b+mb)\times\frac{1}{3}H$. To render this more simple still $V=[D^2+d^2+(D\times d)]\times.7854\times\frac{1}{3}H$.

(c) Pyramid. (Square). $S=L$ or $W\times\frac{1}{2}Sl\times4$; $CS=L\times Sl\times2$; $S=L^2+CS$; Dl of base$=\sqrt{}(L^2+W^2)$; H or perpendicular distance from apex to center of base$=\sqrt{}(Sl^2-\frac{1}{2}L)$; Sl, or altitude of one face$=\sqrt{}(H^2+\frac{1}{2}L)^2$; length of comb (ridge from apex to corner of base)$=\sqrt{}[H^2+(\frac{1}{2}Dl$ of base$)^2]$.

(d) Triangular Pyramid. $CS=(P\times Sl)\div2$; side or length of base$=(CS\div\frac{1}{2}Sl)\div3$; or side$=2CS\div3Sl$; $V=$(B or side)$^2\times.433\times\frac{1}{3}H$; or $V=B^2\times H\times.1443$. For any kind of pyramid, use: $CS=P\times\frac{1}{2}Sl$; $V=\frac{1}{3}$(S of base$\times H$).

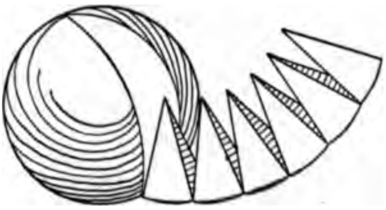
(e) Frustum of Pyramid (Square). $CS=(P+p)\frac{1}{2}Sl$; $S=CS+B^2+b^2$; S of $mb=\sqrt{}(B^2\times b^2)$; but this equals $B\times b$; then the side of $mb=\sqrt{}(B\times b)$; $V=[B^2+b^2+(B\times b)\times\frac{1}{3}H$.

80. Sphere. This is probably the most interesting geometrical figure. The pupil should have two hemispheres. Let him stick a tack in the center of the convex surface and around this wind carefully a small cord until the convex surface is covered. Now let him do the same with the flat surface of the hemisphere and he will discover that the cord required to cover the convex surface will cover the flat surface twice, with no cord left unused. Since the convex surface of the hemisphere is half the convex surface of the sphere, he has discovered that the surface or area of a sphere is just four times the area of a circle whose diameter is that of the sphere. This is fundamental and should be well fixed.


SPHERE

But S of a circle$=\frac{1}{2}C\times\frac{1}{2}D$; S of 4 equal circles$=\frac{1}{2}C\times\frac{1}{2}D\times4$, or C of sphere$\times D$. Hence S of a sphere$=C\times D$. $S=(D\times\pi)\times D$, or $D^2\times\pi$. S is also equal to CS of smallest cylinder in which sphere may be inscribed, because CS of cylinder$=C\times H$, and where $H=D$, the formula becomes:

CS = C $\times$ D. A sphere is composed of an infinite number of pyramids whose bases together equal the S of the sphere and whose H is the R of the sphere. But V of a pyramid = S of base $\times \frac{1}{3}$H. In the pyramid in the sphere H = R; then V of a sphere = S $\times \frac{1}{3}$R, or S $\times \frac{1}{6}$D. But when D alone is known, V = $(D^2 \times \pi) \times \frac{1}{6}$D, since $D^2 \times \pi$ = S; by cancelling we get $D^3 \times .5236$ = V. Thus it is shown *why* we cube the diameter and multiply by .5236 to find the volume of a sphere.



The sphere is made up of an infinite number of pyramids.

L of inscribed cube = $\sqrt{(D^2 \div 3)}$; V of inscribed cube = $[\sqrt{(D^2 \div 3)}]^3$. Dl of inscribed cube = D of sphere. D of sphere when S alone is known = $\sqrt{(S \div \pi)}$.

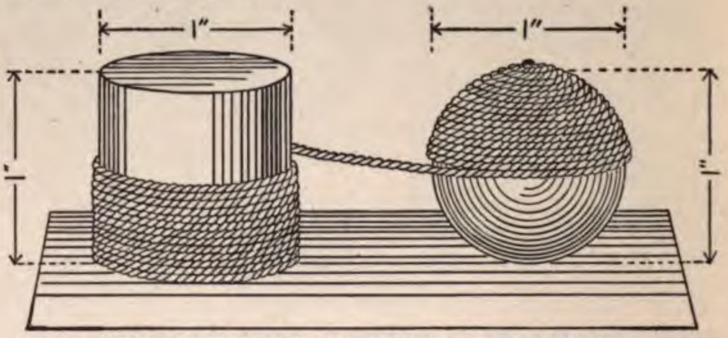
(a) SPHEROIDS. V of an oblate spheroid = $D^2 \times d \times .5236$ (or $\frac{1}{6}\pi$). This is really the same rule as applied in finding V of sphere,— the product of the three diameters $\times .5236$. S of an oblate spheroid = $D \times d \times \pi$, or 4 times the area of an ellipse through its center. V of a prolate spheroid = $d^2 \times D \times .5236$; S of a prolate spheroid = $d \times D \times 3.1416$ or π. If S and d of a prolate spheroid are known, V = $(S \times d) \div 6$; if an oblate spheroid, V = $(S \times D) \div 6$.

81. Miscellaneous Rules in Mensuration of Solids.

1. D of a sphere = $\sqrt{S} \times .5642$, or $\sqrt{(S \div \pi)}$.
2. C of a sphere = $\sqrt[3]{(V \times 3.897)}$; or $\sqrt[3]{(V \times 1.24)}$.
3. Side of inside cube = D of sphere $\times .57736$ or $\sqrt{(D^2 + 3)}$.
4. CS of hemisphere = $D^2 \times 1.5708$; or $D^2 \times \frac{1}{2}\pi$.
5. S of hemisphere = $D^2 \times .7854 \times 3$. (3 circles.)
6. The area of a cube = $Dl^2 \times 2$.
7. To find the altitude of a pyramid whose base is an equilateral triangle: Find radius of circle inscribed on its base; $\sqrt{[(\text{Slant height})^2 - R^3]}$ = altitude or the height of the pyramid.

8. The volumes or values of similar solids are to each other as the cubes of their like dimensions or factors, and vice versa.

9. The volume of a sphere equals $\frac{2}{3}$ of the volume of a cylinder whose diameter and altitude are each equal to the diameter of the sphere.



COMPARATIVE AREA OF SPHERE AND CYLINDER

The surface of a sphere is equal to the convex surface of a cylinder having the same diameter and an altitude equal to the diameter of the sphere.

82. Problems. 1. A fly walks by the shortest route from a lower corner to the opposite upper corner of a room 18 feet long, 16 feet wide, and 10 feet high. Find the distance.

2. Find the diameter of a ball, which, if dropped into a cylindrical vessel 8 inches in diameter and 12 inches deep, will cause the water filling $\frac{13}{16}$ of it to rise to the brim.

3. A cylindrical pole 20 feet high and 8 inches in circumference is wrapped spirally ten times from top to bottom with a cord. How long is the cord required?

4. A bucket whose upper diameter is 12 inches lower diameter 8 inches, depth 10 inches, is $\frac{2}{3}$ full of water. What is the diameter of the ball required to make the water just rise to cover it when dropped into the water?

83. Cube Root.[1] Before the pupil has gone far into mensuration of solids he will need to know how to extract the cube root. Here is a problem and its solution rendering it an example to follow in the extraction of the cube root of any number.

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[1] *Rays Higher Arithmetic*, permission of American Book Company.

Problem. What is the edge of a cube whose solid inches number 13824?

OPERATION:

$$\begin{array}{r|l}
 & 1\dot{3}82\dot{4}(20 \\
 & \underline{8000}\ \ \underline{\ 4} \\
20^2\times 3\quad =1200 & 5824\ \ 24,\ \textit{Ans.} \\
20\times 3\times 4=240 & \\
4^2=\underline{\quad 16} & \\
1456 & \underline{5824}
\end{array}$$

Solution. The length required will be expressed by the cube root of 13824. By the number of periods, we know the root can have no less than two places of figures; also, since the cube of 3 tens is greater and that of 2 tens is less than 13824, the root must be less than 30 and more than 20; consequently, 2 is the first figure of the root, and 8000 is the greatest cube of tens contained in 13824. Let the first of the accompanying figures represent the cube

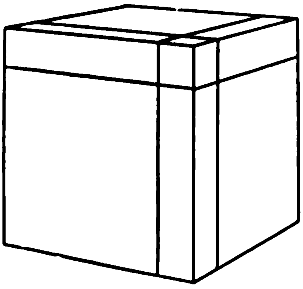

Fig. 1

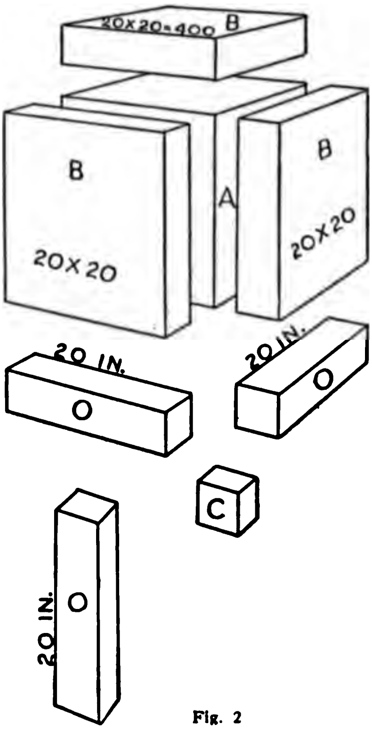

Fig. 2

whose edge is to be found. We see that it must be greater than 20 inches, and that the given solidity exceeds by 5824 cu. in. the cube whose edge is 20 inches, and which, for convenience, we will call *A*. (See Fig. 2.) It is also evident from the second figure, where the separate parts are shown, that the 5824 cu. in. may be regarded as made up of seven parts, three of them being square blocks (*B*) 20 in. long, three of them being rectangular blocks (*O*) of the same length, and one a small cube (*C*). These parts are of the same thickness, and if that thickness be ascertained and added to 20 in., the required edge will be found. The square blocks and the oblong blocks, with the small cube, may be considered as standing in line (Fig. 3) and forming one oblong solid of uniform thickness. Now, as the exact solidity of that solid is 5824 cu. in., if we knew its side surface, its true thickness would be found by *dividing* the number expressing the solidity *by* the number expressing the surface. But we do know that side surface to be greater than 3 times 400 sq. in. and hence the thickness must be *less* than the quotient of 5824 by 1200; and since in 5824, 1200 is contained 4 times but not 5 times, 4 is the *highest* number we need try for the width; as the exact surface of one side is equal to 1200 sq. in., increased by 3 rectangles 20 in. long, and a small square also, each of a width equal to the required thickness, the proper *way* to try 4 for that thickness is, to multiply it by 3 times 20, then by itself, and, adding the products to 1200, multiply the sum by 4; thus, 1200 sq. in.+80 sq. in.

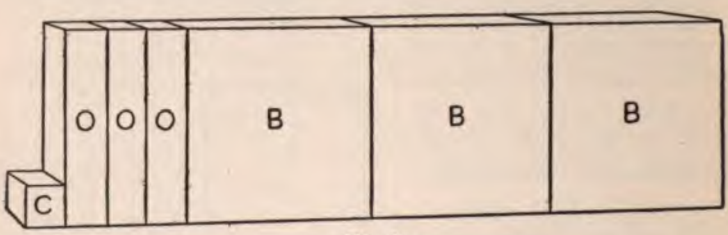

Fig. 3

×3+16 sq. in.=1456 sq. in., and 1456×4=5824, which shows that 4 in. *is* the true thickness, and 20 in.+4 in.= the required edge, 24 in., *Ans.*

Note. Fig. 1 shows also the complete cube with the section lines marked.

84. Vocational Problems. At least one-third of the time given to arithmetic in the eighth year should be devoted to the application of the principles already learned to the various phases of practical arithmetic — the arithmetic best suited to the needs of the community. It would be difficult to make this more imperative or any plainer than we have made it in preceding pages, but in the eighth grade, the last year in school for so many fine boys and girls who are going out into the world to help solve its real problems, should offer pupils an opportunity to solve many of the arithmetical problems that will come into their own sphere of duty when they enter the bank as clerks or messengers, or the store or shop as bookkeepers or clerks or salesmen, or the factory as workers or foremen, or the farm as men and women of affairs. For this reason it is impossible for any book to present just the types of problems needed now, for the reason that communities differ so widely in the problems they would present. If your school is in the open country it will be well to stress the agricultural problems; if in a city, the many commercial and industrial lines open to young people will furnish the problems; if in a mining community, you will find peculiar types of problems that should be dealt with.

In this course of study we have said little about partial payments, a subject which has some claim upon pupils in the eighth grade, but of relatively small importance. We have said nothing of alligation, compound interest and other topics sometimes found in the text-book. When the teacher exhausts the possibilities of the topics herein presented, she may then pursue some of these other more advanced and less practical phases of arithmetic, but this should not be done at the expense of more practical work.

85. Aids for Teachers. *Vocational Arithmetic.* H. D. Vincent. Houghton, Mifflin Company. Boston, Chicago.

Farm Arithmetic. Burkett and Swartzel. Orange Judd Co. New York.

Farm Business Arithmetic. Lewis. D. C. Heath & Co. Boston, Chicago.

How to Teach the Fundamental Subjects. Kendall and Mirick. Houghton, Mifflin Company. Boston, Chicago.

The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics. David Eugene Smith. MacMillan Company. New York, Chicago.

TEST QUESTIONS

1. Why should a fourth grade teacher be familiar with the work in arithmetic done in the third and the fifth grades?
2. Why are many topics, formerly considered essential, now omitted from the course in arithmetic?
3. What mental powers does the study of arithmetic strengthen?
4. Why should the class complete some step in arithmetic in each grade?
5. How would you show a class that $\frac{1}{2}$, .50 and 50% represent the same value?
6. Make a list of the common fractions and their equivalent per cents in most common use in business.
7. Give three reasons for the use of vocational problems. What are your best sources for material for these problems?
8. What farmers' and builders' estimates should pupils memorize?
9. Show the value and use of good formulas in the solution of common business problems.
10. What are the chief points of weakness in your arithmetic classes? Do you know the cause of this weakness? If not, how can you find it?

PLANS FOR TEACHING ARITHMETIC

BY

DR. CHARLES A. MC MURRY

FOURTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

Review reading and writing numbers to 10,000.
Review the 45 primary addition facts and the related subtraction.
Review the multiplication tables. Give concrete and abstract problems.
Review simple short division.
Teach the tables of 10's, 11's and 12's.

OCTOBER

Rapid oral work in addition, subtraction and multiplication.
Study factors of numbers to 20.
Simple fractional parts, as one-fourth of 20, one-half of 24, etc.
Written problems in multiplication and division.

NOVEMBER

Read numbers to 1,000,000. Decimal scale explained.
Factors of numbers to 50.
Review dry and liquid measure; linear measure.
Read and explain concrete problems.
Written work in four fundamental processes.

DECEMBER

Practice in reading and writing numbers to 1,000,000.
Drills on simple fractions, adding and subtracting.
Avoirdupois weight.
Practice in multiplication and in short division.

JANUARY

Oral work in all fundamental processes.
Long division, with two place divisors.
Factors of numbers to 81.
Exercises in simple fractions.

FEBRUARY

Review and compare multiplication tables. Factors.
Simple cancellation; simple examples.

Longer written problems in four fundamental lines.
Addition of compound numbers.

MARCH

Rapid oral drills in all processes.
Problems in compound numbers; analysis.
Study of prime factors to 70; rapid drills.
Simple addition and subtraction of fractions.

APRIL

Drills in form processes and multiplication tables.
Prime factors to 100.
Practice in cancellation; numerous problems.
Problems in areas and volumes.

MAY

Rapid mental drill on four processes.
Addition and subtraction of fractions.
Addition and subtraction of compound numbers.

JUNE

Review writing numbers.
Review all processes for the year.

FIFTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

Review and drill in addition and multiplication.
Review and drill on greatest common divisor and least common multiple.
Work out and analyze concrete problems.

OCTOBER

Begin full study of fractions.
Use both concrete and abstract problems.

NOVEMBER

Continue work on addition and subtraction of fractions.
Give problems on areas, volumes, etc.
Multiplication and division of fractions.

DECEMBER

Continue drill on fractions, division and multiplication.
Square measure and its applications; problems.

JANUARY

Drills on four main processes.
Practical problems in mixed numbers.

FEBRUARY

Rapid drills in all operations.
Begin work in decimals; reading and writing.
Review division of fractions.

MARCH

Writing and reading of decimals; addition and subtraction.
Review drills on fractions in four operations.

APRIL

Oral and written drill problems in all processes.
Addition of decimals, subtraction.

MAY

Continue study of decimals.
Review drills, and problems for analysis.

JUNE

Review of simple and decimal fractions.
Review compound numbers.

SIXTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

Review of simple processes in common fractions.
Review reading and writing of decimals.
Business applications of fractions.

OCTOBER

Division of common fractions review.
Multiplication of decimals.
Drill on writing and reading of decimals.

NOVEMBER

United States money; its relation to decimals.
Multiplication and division of decimals.
Problems in square measure.

DECEMBER

Practical problems in United States money and in multiplication and division of decimals.

Oral drills on all processes in decimals.

JANUARY

Analysis of written problems.
Working of more difficult problems.
Review division of decimals.

FEBRUARY

Begin study of percentage; many illustrations.
Relate percentage to decimals; reviews.
Review division of simple fractions.

MARCH

Simple percentage, illustrated with many problems.

APRIL

The study of volumes in the various forms.
Review interest and its application.

MAY

Square root. (See pages 88-95.)
Applications. (See pages 91-95.) Construct figures.

JUNE

Longitude and time; tables. (See page 81.)
Review problems in business arithmetic.
Mensuration. (See page 98.)
Review interest and its applications.

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH YEARS

SEPTEMBER

Review decimal fractions in the four processes.
Drill in writing decimals and in solving problems.
Oral problems in common fractions.

OCTOBER

Review percentage; use many oral tests.
Problems in the application of percentage to business.

NOVEMBER

Review the three phases of interest.
Problems in profit and loss. (See pages 63-71.)

DECEMBER

Farm problems in profit and loss.
Many oral problems from every day life.
Oral drills on percentage.

JANUARY

Commission problems. (See pages 73-78.)
Insurance; fire and life insurance problems.

FEBRUARY

Review simple interest; business problems.
Study the forms of notes, checks, drafts.
How to send money by post office or bank.

MARCH

Study of plane surfaces; areas. (See pages 85, 101, 110.)
Problems in builders' estimates.
Review problems in percentage.
Use measurements to illustrate percentage.

APRIL

Use many simple home problems in percentage.
Base, rate, percentage. Percentage of what?
Illustrate these terms in problems.

MAY

Practical applications; vocational problems. (See pages 57 and 61.)
Illustrate and work three cases in percentage.

JUNE

The reckoning of simple interest.
Oral and written problems.
Develop proficiency in one method.

CHAPTER TWO

THE EUROPEAN BACKGROUND of AMERICAN HISTORY

By Dr. Charles A. McMurry

The history of America ought not to be considered as something apart from that of the rest of the world. A civilization which had developed in Europe was transplanted to the New World, and although modified by American environment, it became the basis of American life. Since American history should be studied as a continuation of European development, before the systematic study of America is introduced in the grades some European history should be studied in its bearings on our country.

Only a limited time is allowed in the grades for a study of European backgrounds of American history. Not all of the important topics of European history need to be treated, for many are irrelevant. There are only a few important movements that have influenced American development. Many facts are relevant only as they influence later European events rather than American, and their discussion is not necessary.

Since it is an understanding of the spirit of the time, and not an outline of dry and often meaningless facts that will help in the interpretation of later events, a fuller and more descriptive treatment of these pertinent topics is sufficient. To discover the spirit of any epoch the child must know how the people of that time lived, how they felt and how they reacted to the conditions about them. Such a knowledge is obtainable only through a full, descriptive treatment of the subject. An outline is a dead mass that needs to be galvanized into life by rich descriptive and personal detail.

Practically every important movement has as its controlling factor the life work of some great man. By studying the lives of such men in greater biographical detail, the necessary historical facts are not only learned but are made interesting and attractive to children. They enjoy biographical stories of adventure and achievement. The life of Napoleon Bonaparte, the great Corsican who almost remade the map of Europe, makes an interesting, personal story, while it gives a vital interpretation to the struggles of the early nineteenth century, and furnishes a key to much of the later history of the continent, as well as certain events connected with American affairs.

European history is so complex and rich in its scope and includes so many important events that it is extremely difficult to select those topics which should form an introduction to American history. Each European nation has contributed more or less to American development, but it is impossible in a limited time to allow for an extended discussion of each country. Consequently, in the following list of specially chosen topics, although an effort has been made to illustrate the customs and ideas of all of the European nations, the emphasis has been laid upon the history of England, since that country is most closely related to America. After the most important historical movements have been chosen from the whole mass of historical fact, there is still the task of selecting the topic that is typical and illustrative of each movement, and which, when studied, will serve fully as an interpreter for the other topics of its group.

The following list is suggested as containing most important topics for the study of the European background of American history. The topic on *King John and Magna Charta* is given later in detail to show how each topic should be worked out before it is presented to a class.

Pericles. His education and early life; his political life—the Athenian Empire; Athenian democracy; art and architecture during the Age of Pericles.

A study of the Age of Pericles not only brings out and illustrates the artistic side of Greek life, but also shows the structure of Greek democracy, which can be compared with present day democracies.

Julius Caesar. Early political life; conquest of Gaul; his government and laws; his assassination.

Caesar is the best type of Roman general and statesman. The story of his life deals with the organization and expansion of the Roman Republic and the development of the legal system which is Rome's great contribution to modern civilization.

Charlemagne. The organization of the Frankish Kingdom; the conquest of Germany; Charles as emperor; educational reforms.

The Roman Empire of Charlemagne shows the transition from the ascendency of Greece and Rome to that of Western Europe.

Alfred the Great. His childhood and education; wars with the Danes; the legal and political reorganization of England; educational and literary reforms.

Alfred laid the foundation of English government and law. He may well be compared with Charlemagne as to character and activities as ruler and reformer.

King John. See the full treatment of this subject.

Queen Elizabeth. The rivalry of Spain and England; the development of English sea power; the English buccaneers, Hawkins and Drake, encouraged by the queen; the Spanish Armada; explorations and colonization; Elizabethan literature.

Elizabeth's reign made it clear that England, not Spain, was to control North America.

John Hampden. Early opposition to the king in Parliament; the forced loan; the ship-money case; the Grand Remonstrance;

the impeachment and attempted arrest of the five members; Hampden as a soldier during the English Civil War.

Hampden is a type of the patriot who defends the rights of the people against the oppressions of an unjust and wayward king. His life serves as an introduction to the earlier phases of the Puritan Revolution.

OLIVER CROMWELL. Reorganization of the Parliament and army; the contest between Parliament and army; the execution of the king; the organization of the Commonwealth; Cromwell in Ireland and Scotland; the dissolution of Parliament; the assembly of Nominees; the Protector; the "Instrument of Government"; Cromwell's contest with Parliament; his foreign policy; his death.

The Commonwealth should be compared with other republican forms of government, the Athenian as well as modern democracy. The study of Cromwell is a good introduction to Puritanism in England.

MAGNA CHARTA

When Henry II was king of England (1154-1189) he had four sons, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey and John. To his three older sons he gave his French possessions to govern, but he sent John to govern Ireland (1185), where he insulted the Irish chieftains by making fun of their dress and manners until Henry recalled him to England. Young Henry and Geoffrey died while fighting against their father to get more land and power. Richard allied himself with the French king to fight against Henry. John seemed to be the only one who was faithful to his father. At last Henry was forced to accept Richard's terms in a treaty of peace. When he was given the list of names of those who had aided Richard against him, he found at the head of the list the name of his favorite son, John.

Richard became king at his father's death, in 1189. Soon after his coronation he started on a crusade to capture Jerusalem, which had fallen into the hands of the Mohammedans. Before he left England he willed his throne to Arthur, the son of his brother Geoffrey. As soon as Richard was gone, John had the barons and nobles who were left in England declare him Richard's heir.

Richard was imprisoned in a castle on the Danube, by the German emperor, Henry VI, while on his way home from the Crusade, and John had himself declared king, pretending that Richard was dead. Richard was released only when his people paid a large sum of money, or ransom, for him. John tried to prevent the collection of the ransom, but without success. When Richard returned he pardoned John, and said, "I forgive him, and hope that I shall as easily forget his injuries as he will my pardon." Richard died soon after, and in his last will declared that John was his heir.

Arthur's father, Geoffrey, had been John's older brother, so by the rules which govern the succession to thrones, Arthur should have been king instead of John; but John was a grown man and Arthur only a boy twelve years old, so the people of England preferred John. Maine and Anjou, two of the English possessions in France, declared for Arthur, and appealed to the French king, Philip, to help them against John. Philip pretended to be very friendly toward Arthur, and brought him to Paris to be educated. He was glad to get a chance to make trouble for the ruler of England, because he was the overlord of the English lands in France.

John soon made another enemy. He fell in love with, and married a French lady, Isabella of Angoulême, who had been the promised bride of one of his French barons. This baron at once declared war against John. The latter started to raise an army and asked the English nobles to go with him to France, but most of them refused. By threats he forced some of them to accompany him, and the rest had to pay two marks apiece, as the price of exemption from military service.

Philip, in the meantime, as John's overlord, had summoned him to appear in court to defend his conduct toward his French vassals; and when John refused, Philip declared that all of his French possessions were forfeited. This was according to the feudal laws of the time; and Philip at once invaded English territory. He gave an army to Arthur, claiming that he was the rightful king of England. Arthur at once tried to capture his grandmother, Eleanor, who was very popular among John's French vassals. John came to his mother's rescue, released her, and seized Arthur. He kept the boy in prison for some time, and finally had him murdered. This gave Philip another excuse for fighting John, and he captured castle after castle that had been held by the English. John, instead of fighting, stayed shut up in a town, amusing himself, for he boasted, "Let the French go on. I will retake in a day what it cost them years to acquire."

John's inactivity and boasting so disgusted the English barons that they went home, and John soon had to follow them. With John and his army gone, Philip easily conquered all of the English territory in France except Aquitaine, which remained faithful to John's mother, Eleanor.

As soon as John reached home he got into more trouble. The Archbishop of Canterbury was the most important Church official in England. The monks of Canterbury had the right to elect the archbishop, but their choice had to be approved by the king. When the archbishop died, the monks met together, elected their sub-prior, Reginald, archbishop, and secretly sent him to Pope Innocent III at Rome to have his election confirmed. As soon as Reginald was safely out of England, he talked about the election, and John heard of it. He forced the monks to have another election and choose one of his own friends. The Pope refused to accept either of these candidates, but insisted on the election of Stephen Langton, an English cardinal, who was living at Rome.

Although Langton was the best man who could have been chosen, John was so angry that he refused to receive him as archbishop. The Pope, to make John submit, declared an interdict over England. This meant that all the churches in England were closed, and no religious ceremonies were allowed except the baptism of babies and communion for the dying. The dead could not be buried in consecrated ground, but were thrown into ditches, or burned in the common fields. Marriages could only be celebrated in the churchyards, not in the churches themselves. The people were forbidden to eat meat, or to have any amusements. Since religion was a large part of the lives of the people, an interdict was very hard on them. The Pope hoped that the people of England would so object to the interdict that they would force John to submit; but John did not care how his people felt, and still refused to accept Langton.

Since the interdict did not work, the Pope excommunicated John—that is, took away from him all connection with the Church and all hope of heaven, and absolved all of his subjects from submission to him. Still John did not submit. At last the Pope announced that John was no longer king, and asked the French king to invade England, to remove John from power. Philip was delighted with this plan, and he collected a large army. Most of John's nobles had deserted him, because they felt that he was in the wrong, so John was forced to yield to the Pope's claims.

Besides accepting Langton as archbishop, John agreed to resign his kingdom and receive it back as a fief. He was to make an annual payment to the Pope of one thousand marks for England and three hundred for Ireland.

The Pope sent a legate, or representative, named Pandulf to receive John's submission as a vassal. John came unarmed into the presence of Pandulf, who was seated on a throne. John knelt down, held up his hands, put them between those of Pandulf and swore fealty to the Pope. He also paid tribute demanded of him. Pandulf, who was overjoyed at thus humbling John, trampled on the money when it was given to him, but no one dared to avenge this insult.

To some people, John's submission to the Pope "seemed ignominious and a heavy yoke of service," but most of John's subjects approved of his action, saying that he "by his act provided prudently both for himself and for his people, for matters were in such a strait, and so great was the fear on all sides, that there was no way of avoiding the imminent peril—perhaps no other way at all. For when once he had put himself under apostolic protection, and made his realms a part of the patrimony of St. Peter, there was not in the Roman world a sovereign who durst attack him, or invade them, inasmuch as Pope Innocent was universally held in awe above all his predecessors for many years past."

As soon as John submitted, the Pope recalled the interdict and excommunication, and ordered Philip to stop his preparations for war with England.

When his peace with the Pope was made John prepared to win back his French possessions. Most of his barons refused to follow him to France, first, on the ground that he was excommunicated, and then, when the ban was removed, because they were not supposed to serve abroad. When John was safely in France these barons met together at St. Edmunds, a famous shrine. They pretended that they had come together on a pilgrimage, but really they wanted to discuss their grievances against John, because of his unjust taxation and disregard of law. Stephen Langton showed them a copy of the charter of Henry I, which gave certain rights to the nobles of England. The barons, when they were assembled in the church of St. Edmunds, all swore that if the king refused to give them the liberties and laws secured to them by the charter, they would make war upon him, "until he should, by a charter under his own seal, confirm to them everything they required." They also agreed that, after Christmas, they would go together to the king and state their demands, but that in the meantime they would arm themselves, to be ready to fight, if necessary.

Accordingly, after Christmas, the barons went to John "in gay military array," and demanded the confirmation of their liberties and laws. John was frightened by the boldness of the barons and thought that they might fight him at once, so he promised to satisfy them, if they would let him consider the matter until after Easter. The barons demanded that three of John's barons act as his surety that he would keep faith, and when this was done they went home.

John had no intention of keeping his promise, but instead, he tried to strengthen his position as much as possible. He caused many of the nobles to promise to be faithful to him alone; and, as a last resort, he "took the cross" and arranged to go on a crusade, because crusaders were supposed to be sacred and free from attack. As an old chronicle says, he was "induced to this more by fear than devotion."

At Easter the barons came to the king, as had been arranged. John sent Langton and William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, to them to find out their terms. They sent to the king a paper containing the laws and customs which the king was to allow them. When John read this paper, he cried in a rage, "Why, amongst these unjust demands, did not the barons ask for my kingdom also? Their demands are vain and visionary, and unsupported by any plea of reason whatever." He declared, with an oath, that he would never grant the liberties demanded, because they would make him a slave.

When the barons heard what John had said, they armed themselves, and started out to capture some of his castles. They were met by messengers from the city of London, who asked them to come to that city. They marched thither and were well received, because "the rich citizens were favorable to the barons, and the poor ones were afraid to murmur against them." From London, the barons sent out letters to the nobles who still seemed faithful to John. Most of these came to London, so John was left with only seven knights on his side.

Now, according to an old chronicler, "he deceitfully pretended to make peace for a time with the aforesaid barons, and sent William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, with other trustworthy messengers, to them and told them that, for the sake of peace and for the exaltation and honor of the kingdom, he would willingly grant them the laws and liberties they demanded. He sent also a request to the barons by these same messengers, that they appoint a suitable day and place to meet and carry these matters into effect. The king's messenger then came in all haste to London, and, without deceit, reported to the barons all that had been deceitfully imposed on them."

The barons and the king met, on the 15th of June, 1215, in a swampy field called Runnymede, on the Thames River, west of London. The barons camped on one side of the river, and the king on the other; and the two parties met on an island between the camps. Here there was a long discussion of terms; but the king at length agreed to the *Magna Charta*, or great charter, a document which set forth the rights of all the people, churchmen and townsmen, as well as nobles.

It is wrong to think of John as "signing" the charter as modern laws are signed. It is possible that John was unable to write; at any rate, he agreed to the terms of the charter only by having his seal placed on the paper.

The charter had in it nothing that was new; it only collected together all of the best laws that had been in force in England until John had refused to abide by them. The provisions of the charter have served as the basis for the laws of every English-speaking country.

Among the sixty-three provisions of the charter, the following are the most important:

"No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, nor will we send upon him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land."

"We will sell to no man, we will not deny to any man, either justice or right."

"All merchants shall have safe and secure conduct to go out of, and come into, England, and to stay there and to pass as well by land as by water, for buying and selling by the ancient and allowed customs, without any unjust tolls, except in time of war, or when they are of any nation at war with us."

"And whereas, for the honor of God and the amendment of our kingdom, and for the better quieting the discord that has arisen between us and our barons, we have granted all these things aforesaid. Willing to render them firm and lasting, we do give and grant our subjects the underwritten security, namely, that the barons may choose five and twenty barons of the kingdom, whom they think convenient, who shall take care, with all their might, to hold and observe, and cause to be observed, the peace and liberties we have granted them, and by this our present charter confirmed."

"It is also sworn, as well on our part as on the part of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall be observed in good faith, and without duplicity."

It is said that John smiled as he agreed to the charter, but when he reached his own chamber, he threw himself on the floor in a rage, biting the rushes that served as a carpet.

Although John had said that he was acting "in good faith," and the twenty-five barons had been appointed to enforce the charter, he did not feel that he could afford to stand by his promises. Instead, he sought aid from the Pope, and hired soldiers, called mercenaries, were sent to help him.

The barons organized and offered their allegiance to Prince Louis of France. Louis at once invaded England. John's mercenaries, who were mostly French, refused to fight against their countrymen. What army he had left was rendered useless because, as John was crossing an arm of the sea, the tide came up and washed away his baggage and royal treasure. John was forced to retreat and take refuge in a monastery, where he was seized with a fever. He is said to have eaten so immoderately of peaches, which the monks offered him, that his fever increased and he died.

When John was dead the barons refused to help the French, so they returned home, and John's son Henry, a boy nine years old, was made king.

John accepted *Magna Charta* under compulsion, and later kings considered it an infringement of their rights. Again and again the people had to take up arms to protect the charter. Only gradually did the kings learn that the charter was the fundamental law of the land, which even they must obey.

CHAPTER TWO (*Continued*)

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INTRODUCTION

1. Value. Many teachers think that history is a mere record of what man has done as represented in dynasties or administrations, inventions, discoveries, or battles won, and that the child who can name these in order knows history. He does know the book side of it; but the real value of history is to know about the men themselves, their lives and impulses, their characters and surroundings, and the conditions of men's affairs at all times, so that the student may *feel* history as well as *know* history, and may love and admire great characters as he loves and admires his own friends and relations.

Therefore, we will start with the proposition that, to make history worth while, the child must feel its influence and impulse as well as know the facts. To do that we must understand what a child feels, and what things make most impression upon him.

Take any child of ten or twelve years of age and the first thing he will demand is: "Tell me a story." At this age he does not want a fairy story, nor a ghost story, but rather a story of adventure and daring. It is his nature to admire and be influenced by deeds of prowess and high moral purpose. He wants plenty of battles, bloodshed and conquests. This then opens the avenue of history teaching in the middle grades of school life. Teach a child in the way he wishes to learn, and when he is old he will not forget it.

I very well remember my old teacher of many years ago who had been a soldier in the Civil War, and who laid aside almost any lesson to talk to us about the war and his part in it. We sat open-eyed and wondering at his stories of marches and battles and hardships; his description of men and scenes; and under the magic spell of his personal touch we drank in the history of the war because he felt it and made us feel it.

2. Story-Telling. This then brings us to the declaration that the proper way to introduce history is by the story-telling plan. Also let us consider that the selection of stories must be such as appeal to the primitive instincts of the child. We may outline the kind of stories as follows:

(1) Stories of those explorers who had dramatic experiences with the natives.

(2) Stories of some early settlers and the incidents of their lives, showing courage and hardship.

(3) Stories of pioneer life, and adventures with the wilderness, and with the Indians.

(4) Stories of the courageous boyhood of some notable characters.

3. The Purpose of Each Story. The purpose of each story should be to develop some trait of character worth while in a man, such as courage, endurance, honesty, fair dealing, etc. The story is the main point, however, and the moral will be sufficiently apparent without too much emphasis on the part of the teacher. A child of normal disposition will resent too much sermonizing, and, if the story is incidental to the moral, he will feel that the teacher is not teaching history but using history for moralizing. A judicious use of a few questions, and a pointing out of character values will be ample for all purposes.

4. Oral Stories. By all means the stories should be told to the pupils and not read to them. Reading from a book has the same effect upon children that it has upon grown people. Children love the eye-to-eye touch that the oral telling alone can give. Every teacher should learn to be a good story teller, fluent, dramatic, interesting, and commanding. It begets eloquence and insures order. It demands preparation and calls for more work than mere reading from a book; but it is worth while.

PILGRIM'S LOG CABIN

(a) Manner of Presentation. Having selected the story and fixed the main points in mind, let the telling be pointed, in simple language, animated, and not too long. See that all the children listen and get the point. Use the voice with effect to illustrate and emphasize the story, and dwell strongly upon the big things. Make pictures strong and vivid in the child's mind, remembering that the things that a child sees with his mind are about all that he is going to remember. History appeals to the imagination more than any other study in the curriculum, and if there is no appeal to the imagination, and no moving pictures in the mind as the story proceeds, there is probably no real teaching of history.

(b) IMPRESSING THE STORY. After the story is told, then comes the test, the application, and seat work for occupation. Questioning should be done judiciously, so as to develop the children's thoughts on the subject. "What would you have done?" "Why do you suppose — etc.?" Instead of a mere reproduction of the story, which is generally tiresome and appeals only to the memory, the teacher should appeal to the judgment and individuality of each child, and lead him to speak his own thoughts in his own words, and give his opinion of men and events as they were told by the teacher. Upon some other day, when the teacher desires to test how much of the story was remembered by the class, it would be well to have it narrated by one or more of the pupils, in the way of a review for impressing the facts and the story itself.

(c) LESSON PLAN. Suppose we selected for the story the hardships of the Pilgrims in New England. We will have to tell their reasons for leaving England; their life in Holland; their long voyage to America; their landing in the winter time and how they suffered; how many of them died; how Miles Standish helped the colonists. We must tell about Samoset and Squanto, and what they taught the colonists; about the first houses, and how they were built, and how the people lived; and, finally, how brave the Pilgrims were and how they succeeded in making homes in the new world.

The teacher should use a map to point out England, Holland, the voyage of the Mayflower, and Plymouth. A blackboard illustration of a rude cabin covered over with snow, will impress the hardships of the first winter. The names of Standish and the others may be written on the board to impress them on the memory of the pupils. In addition to this, the teacher should gather from all sources as much illustration as possible; pictures of Plymouth Rock; the Landing of the Pilgrims; a New England Kitchen —

and indeed anything that adds to the story in hand. (See Type Study, *Puritans*, page 221.)

Pupils should be questioned on their opinions of whether it was best for the Pilgrims to leave England or not; and what would happen if we surrendered our conscience of what is right and wrong; also, what would each one do if he found himself in the new world on a winter's day, etc. Do they admire Miles Standish and why? Would they have gone back to England or not? etc. Questions of this sort develop character and individuality.

For seat work, the pupils can write on a single sheet of paper any part of the story they like, and can illustrate it with pencil drawings, or with pictures cut from magazines, and then make a permanent record of the story. The teacher may well understand that the pupil never really knows anything until he has talked about it, or written about it.

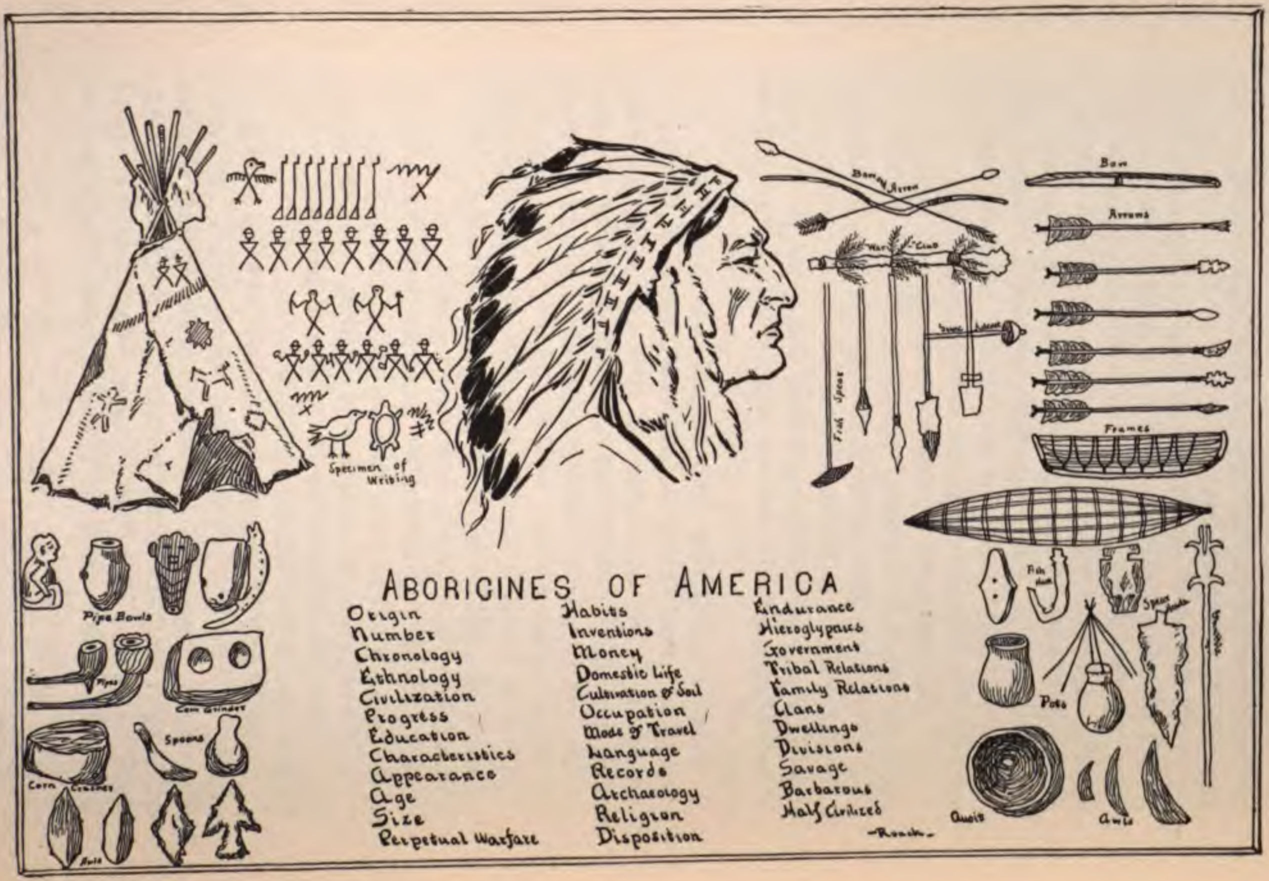
Bear in mind that this lesson is a type study and should be dwelt upon several days until it is entirely exhausted in its story form. It is a motive for a week's work, and when done it makes something lasting and final in the child's mind. We see then that the plan covers the following steps:

(1) Oral presentation of a prepared story, in vivid, picturesque language, accompanied by map directions, pictures and blackboard drawings, and word studies.

(2) Judicious questioning on issues involved, and appeals to the pupil's independent thought and character.

(3) Seat work in writing and drawing; possibly some handwork — descriptive and impressive of the story as told by the teacher and felt by the pupil.

5. Working by an Outline. It is advisable to work by an outline so that any subject may be definitely and fully developed. The careful teacher will preserve these outlines from year to year, with full teaching directions, illustrations, and material. These outlines may cover a series of lessons of several days, or a week's work. Suppose that


ABORIGINES OF AMERICA
Origin
Number
Chronology
Ethnology
Civilization
Progress
Education
Characteristics
Appearance
Age
Size
Perpetual Warfare
Habits
Inventions
Money
Domestic Life
Cultivation of Soil
Occupation
Mode of Travel
Language
Records
Archaeology
Religion
Disposition
Endurance
Hieroglyphics
Government
Tribal Relations
Family Relations
Clans
Dwellings
Divisions
Savage
Barbarous
Half Civilized
Specimen of Writing
Bow and Arrow
War Club
Fish Spear
Bow
Arrows
Frames
Fish Hook
Spear Heads
Pots
Quoits
Awls
Pipe Bowls
Pipes
Corn Grinder
Spoons
Corn Crackers
Awls
-Roach-

the teacher desired to spend a whole week in talking about Indian life. The following outline would probably serve.

(1) When and where first seen, and why so named.

(2) Their personal appearance: color; size; eyes; hair.

(3) Their modes of living: wigwams; hunting; fishing; bows and arrows; spears; canoes; clothing; moccasins.

(4) Their customs: painting their bodies; treatment of women; squaws; papoose; worshiping the Great Spirit, etc.

(5) Indian warfare: war dance; war paint; methods of warfare; scalp lock; torture of prisoners; endurance of pain.

(6) Indian character: treachery in some, loyalty in others (give instance); massacres; treaties.

(7) What we learned from the Indians: how to raise corn; kill trees by girdling; grow tomatoes; potatoes and other plants; use of tobacco; also of the turkey; cocoa and many medicinal plants; forest craft about trees, animals, etc.

(8) Illustrations: arrow heads; spear points; pottery; bead work; canoes; feather head dressing, etc.

(9) Literature: *Hiawatha*. Indian stories of all sorts.

(10) Dramatization: Indian games; dressing like Indians; attack on village and repulse; scalping; war dance; treaty making; drum beating, etc.

(See Type Study, *Iroquois Indians*, page 207.)

OUTLINE WORK FOR THE FOURTH YEAR

6. Studies in Biography. The following suggestions may not be taken literally, but are subject to whatever variation the teacher may find advisable or desirable. Each topic or story may cover a period of work lasting as many days as the pupil finds it interesting. Each one has a motive that should be borne in mind, but not stressed unduly.

(a) COLUMBUS. His father's occupation; his boyhood days; his early ambition for the sea; his early life as a sailor; what he had heard about the earth being round; his desire to go around it. His trials in Europe and his first voyage of discovery.

The main emphasis is to be placed upon the events that happened before land was discovered, leaving the discovery and its effects for the next year's study. (See Type Study, *Columbus*, page 196.)

COLUMBUS

(b) Ponce de Leon. (Type of explorer for greed.) His life in Porto Rico; his desire for eternal youth and why; his voyage to the mainland; his naming of Florida; his search for the fountain; his fight with the Indians; his death in Cuba. The emphasis to be placed upon his foolish motives.

(c) John Smith. (Hardy settler.) His early life of adventure in Egypt and Turkey; his joining the colonists; his adventures with the Indians; Pocahontas and Powhatan; his services to Jamestown; his return to England.

Emphasis to be placed upon the hardihood and wit necessary to endure in a new colony like Jamestown.

WILLIAM PENN

(d) Miles Standish. (Hardy pioneer for the sake of conscience.) See outline above on lesson plan of the Pilgrims. Standish may be studied as a special type: his appearance; his adventures with the Indians; his regulations for the colony; his friend John Alden. (See also Type Study, *Puritans*, page 221.)

Emphasize the sturdy qualities to combat climate and savage conditions in a New England country, as well as doing all this for the sake of one's conscience.

(e) WILLIAM PENN. (Type of benevolent founder.) The Quakers; how persecuted; their manner of worship; coming to America; founding of Philadelphia; the treaty with the Indians; Penn's treatment of the savages; stories about Penn. The teacher should place stress upon the attitude of Penn towards the natives as compared with the cruelty of the Spanish explorers.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

(f) SIR WALTER RALEIGH. (Gentleman adventurer.) His first meeting with Elizabeth; his life at court; his coming to America; anecdote of tobacco smoke and his servant; story of the lost colony of Roanoke; story of Virginia Dare.

The purpose of this story is mainly to show a type of young man who sought favor by an adventure in a new world.

PETER STUYVESANT

(g) PETER STUYVESANT. Life in Holland; Dutch on Manhattan Island; their houses; their modes of life; description of Stuyvesant; his wooden leg; his temper; his method of treating the colonists; his rage at the call for surrender; his after life; Dutch names in New York at the present day.

The purpose of the story is to emphasize the coming of Dutch character into the life of New York, and to show the different types of men who played a part in the making of the country.

(h) JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE. (Philanthropist and founder.) Debtor's prison in England; Oglethorpe's sympathy; voyage to America; settlement at Savannah; Tomochichi; Indian treaty; life of the colonists; war with the Spaniards; the decoy letter.

The teacher may well dwell upon the sacrifices of a man of wealth and rank who comes to America to found a colony for the poor and distressed of London.

(i) GEORGE WASHINGTON. (Type of strong character.) Incidents of his boyhood; breaking the colt; life as a surveyor; taking the message to the French; his personal traits as a boy and a young man. (See Type Study, *George Washington*, page 234.)

In this grade the teacher may omit the military career of Washington, and dwell upon his boyhood character giving promise of his future greatness.

(j) FRANCIS MARION. (Sacrifice for liberty.) A short statement about the Revolution, and its dark days; the conditions in the South; guerilla warfare; Marion and Sumter; story of the dinner on potatoes.

The teacher should impress the sacrifices that these men made that their country might be free from British control. No sacrifice is too great to secure liberty from tyranny of any sort.

(k) GEORGE ROGERS CLARK. (Type of courageous pioneer soldier.) Why he wished to conquer the Northwest territory; interviews with Governor Henry; voyage down the Ohio; capture of Kaskaskia; capture of Vincennes; stories of Hamilton. The teacher should bring out all the heroic incidents of this remarkable leader's life to impress the idea of endurance and daring.

(l) DANIEL BOONE. (Pioneer and adventurer.) Character of Boone; trip into Kentucky; what he found there;

founding a town; adventures of Boone; his old age. This story gives splendid chance to develop the character and habits of the early pioneer; and opens opportunity for the story of cabin life, trapping and living on the frontier.

(m) JAMES ROBERTSON. (Pioneer and settler.) Friend of Boone; moving into Kentucky; traveling through the wilderness; trading with the Indians; settling down; cabin building.

The teacher can use this story also for frontier life — especially moving through the wilderness to new homes and beginning a new town. The children will discuss the needs of the trip, and what should be carried, etc.

(n) JOHN SEVIER. (Typical frontiersman.) Story of Kate Sherrill; Sevier's hospitality; his popularity; his home life; leading his men to King's Mountain and helping to win the battle.

This story gives a chance to discuss early life in a new state, and a strong character in control. Dwell on the full and free life of Sevier, and his abounding hospitality.

(o) BENJAMIN FRANKLIN. (Philosopher and Statesman). His early life; his discoveries and inventions; his suggestions for public improvements; his almanac and some of his maxims; his story of the whistle; his kite experiment; his dress and manners.

The teacher will avoid any discussion of Franklin's public services, these being too difficult for this grade. His life is useful as a type of good humor, wisdom, simplicity and courage.

(p) ANDREW JACKSON. (Type of vigor and independent youth.) His birthplace; his defiance of the British officer; moves to Nashville; stories of his young manhood; why called "Old Hickory."

The young manhood of Jackson is the only part of his life available for this grade. The valuable part is his great courage and independence. (See Type Study, *Andrew Jackson*, page 273.)

(q) ELI WHITNEY. (Inventor.) Cotton planting long ago;

no gins; hand picking very difficult. Whitney in Georgia; how and why the cotton gin was invented; story of the hardships of Whitney; the benefit of the gin; the making of cotton now; its value and use. (See Type Study, *Cotton*, Volume VI, page 150.)

ELI WHITNEY

This story of the hardships of Whitney is valuable only as it may show the effect of a thoughtful mind when brought to bear upon a people's needs.

(r) ABRAHAM LINCOLN. (Type of American youth.) His early life; getting his education; moving to Illinois; working on the farm; studying at night; his strength and endurance; "Honest Abe."

Lincoln affords opportunity for the story of growth of character through much adversity. His life abounds in incidents that children will like. His disposition, humor, gentleness and courage are all good traits to illustrate.

OUTLINES OF WORK FOR THE FIFTH YEAR

7. Essentials. Frequently there is some elementary text on history prescribed for the fifth grade, and the teacher is confronted with a work more or less interesting and suited to the pupils of this grade. In case there is no book prescribed, the work should be largely a continuation of the story of dramatic characters as suggested for the fourth grade with the additional advice that portions of the life of some characters, such as Columbus, may well be added.

There is not a great deal of difference in the advancement of pupils of the fourth grade and the fifth grade; and we may still consider that the formal and systematic study of history has not begun for them. They need but few dates or figures, or connected settings. If a book is to be studied the order may be chronological, but it still may be picturesque, dramatic and presented from the hero story side. The treatment should be broad and bold, and the facts presented such as afford striking and strong effects.

8. Type Studies. Let us emphasize here, and for all grades, that the proper way to study history is from the standpoint of some type or large topic, illustrating some point or event. For example, let us take a lesson plan for the fifth grade on *The Opening of the West in* 1849. This story may occupy the better part of two weeks.

SUTTER'S MILL, CALIFORNIA

This old mill stands on the place where gold was discovered in 1848.

(a) LESSON PLAN. The outlines will include a map descriptive of the territory we gained by the Mexican War. (See page 160.) Stories of explorers and hunters in the new territory; travelers crossing the plains in wagons to find homes in the West; the discovery of gold in 1848; the excitement it created; the mad panic for the gold fields; the rush of people across the continent, with full descriptions of their hardships. The Indians, the buffaloes, etc.; the rapid growth of California; the wealth of some miners; miners' camps; lawless life of the miners; conflict of opinions over taking slaves into the new territory; gradual growth of California and its present prosperity; descriptions of the fruit-growing and cattle industry of the West.

This is a long story covering many years of actual history, but it is a fascinating story of hardships and triumphs. A map is indispensable to show the routes of travel and the territory considered. Pictures may be used to show the wagons, the forests, the moving camps and anything else related to the story. The dramatic side of the story is to be found in the camp life of those crossing the plains—with its perils and novelty—and in the thrilling story of the miners' experiences. Indeed, with this as a basis, a teacher may, in a month, develop the whole story of our Great West.

9. A Typical Lesson. The purpose of this lesson is to show how some good men tried to convert the Indians. The subject is John Eliot, the Apostle to the Indians.

You will remember that when the first colonists came to America they found Indians living in all parts of the country. They lived in wigwams, and spent their time in hunting, fishing, and were often engaged in war with one another. Some of the Indian tribes were friendly to the whites and gave them no trouble. Often these Indians would come into the white villages bringing game, fish, fruit, and other things to exchange for clothes, guns, powder and cheap jewelry that the Indians loved very dearly to wear. Some of the tribes, however, were hostile, and gave the colonists a great deal of trouble. They would not make *any* treaties of friendship, nor smoke the pipe of peace. This made the colonists very watchful of Indian uprisings, for when those who were unfriendly did get on the war path they came into the villages; burned the houses; and killed the colonists without mercy or carried them away as prisoners.

BLOCKHOUSE SURROUNDED BY STOCKADE

WAGON TRAIN CROSSING THE PLAINS

To protect themselves the colonists built stockade forts consisting of a few houses surrounded by a tall fence. Inside these stockade forts they kept water and food, so that when the Indians came the colonists would flee into the stockade, and fight the Indians through the holes in the fence. In such watchfulness did the colonists live that it was the rule for men always to have their guns at hand. They carried their guns to the field when they went to work; they slept with them by their sides at night; they even took them to church when they went to worship. (See page 144.)

The English colonists did not wish to make war on the Indians. They desired to live in peace and friendship with the savages, and to teach them to live a civilized life. For this purpose schools were established for the Indians to teach them to read, and missionaries were sent into their villages. This was dangerous work at times, and many of these pioneer missionaries were cruelly treated by some of the hostile tribes. One of these was John Eliot who had come from England eleven years after the first settlers had landed at Plymouth. He was a great scholar and had learned many languages. He began to study the Indian language, and at last was able to write the Bible in the Indian tongue so that the savages, who had gone to school, might read it.

After a while Eliot decided that he should go among the Indians and preach to them in their own language. He was such a good man that they did him no harm. He went from village to village, gathered the Indians under the trees and preached to them by the hour. Sometimes the Indians would get tired of listening and would start away. Then Eliot would stop preaching and distribute presents among them, after which they would listen a little longer, hoping for more presents. The Indians, however, thought it a strange doctrine that kept a man from slaying and scalping his enemies, and they could not understand why any one should prefer work in the fields to the war path. Some were converted, but most of them listened with scorn. Eliot preached for twenty years among the Indians, living in their tents and speaking their language. He is known as the Apostle to the Indians.

The above lesson should be amplified in the telling, and emphasis placed on the savage state of mind that loves cruelty and war. Compare life under those conditions with our own peaceful and protected homes *now*. Describe the motives of Eliot and compare him with present day missionaries in foreign lands.

The second day may be a review of the main points of the lesson, with questions upon the story to see that the pupils remember it. One pupil may tell it all, or at least all that he remembers, the other pupils filling in the neglected or forgotten parts. The blackboard should contain the words *John Eliot, the Apostle to the Indians*. The meaning of *Apostle* should be explained. The seat work should be a short description of what he did in trying to convert the savages.

(a) SUGGESTIONS. (1) In case the teacher is beginning to use a text-book in this grade, care should be taken to see that the language of the author is translated into the language of the child, whenever necessary. Children love stories when written by those geniuses that write with a child's language, and see the point with a child's mind. Unfortunately, these writers are rare, and children come to dislike a history text because it is so dull and uninteresting, when it should be glowing with appeal to their love of adventure. Therefore, the text should be enlivened by a personal touch or commentary that brings it within the range of a child's understanding.

(2) It is well to remember that all history cannot be taught, and that many details are confusing. A few strong episodes and characters suffice for the year's work, and these should be as well known for the child as though he had read a book on the subject. One thing well taught and long remembered is greatly to be preferred to many details that will soon vanish. Indeed if the teacher has strongly

impressed one episode upon the minds of the class, she may be assured that it will act as a stimulus for them to learn other things for themselves.

(b) DEVICES. In order to impress the year's work upon the pupils the following devices are suggested:

(1) Review questions written on cards, to be accumulated as the studies advance and used for all sorts of games of memory.

(2) Impersonations, in which one pupil assumes a character without giving the name, and by describing his career the others guess who he is.

(3) A pupil is assigned a character without being told who it is, and the other pupils discuss him until he guesses whom he represents.

(4) Dramatization, in which all the characters of an incident, such as "Columbus before the Court of Spain" are assumed by the members of the class, who act the story and tell it in their own words.

(5) Questions to stimulate study, to be used to encourage reading history and biography.

(6) Blackboard drawings to be used as problems for the class at large to guess what story or incident is suggested — as a tree to suggest Eliot's preaching.

OUTLINE OF WORK FOR THE SIXTH YEAR

10. The Systematic Study of History. In this grade the pupil begins a more orderly and connected study of the history of America. Naturally the grade will begin with early history and proceed to a logical stopping place for the year. The year's work will include the explorations, the early settlements, the establishment of the colonies, the Indian wars, and the customs of the colonists. This will take the pupil up to the period of the Revolutionary War.

These periods of American history are still the most dramatic and adventurous periods, full of strong incidents, bravery and hairbreadth escapes. The nation is in its infancy and beset with many dangers. The courage of the men who held on in spite of adversity may well appeal to the child's mind, and bring many wholesome lessons of endurance and success. The very simplicity of the life, its frontier aspect, the closeness to nature, the primitive conditions, the dependence of each man upon himself, and instances of conflict, make this period of history one long story of adventure. Surely the good teacher will sympathize with the young minds before her, and help them to live over again the lives of their forefathers.

11. Period of Exploration. This will include a story of the condition of Europe, and the state of men's minds that led up to the voyage of Columbus.

(1) The Norsemen and their adventures illustrated by maps and pictures, showing where they came from and what lands they were supposed to explore.

(2) A complete story of Columbus: his early life; his trials; his persistence; his voyage; his discoveries; and his last days. This study should cover a number of lessons and be final and complete, fully illustrated in every way. (See Type Study, *Columbus*, page 196.)

(3) Other discoveries and explorers belong to this period, particularly the Cabots, Vespucius, Balboa and Magellan. In each instance the voyages and lands explored should be marked on an outline map, and the effect of their discoveries should be emphasized.

The period closes with a full study of Indian life according to the outline as given on page 137. This story should be made as full as possible, using pictures, stones, dramatization, Indian beads, handwork, etc. By this means we come, at length, to the land fully discovered and understood to be a new world ready for some nation or nations to occupy.

12. Period of Settlement. (a) SPANISH. The opening studies will be of the Spaniards, such as Ponce de Leon, Cortez, Coronado, Narvaez, De Soto, and their motives in coming to America. An outline map will still indicate where they explored and where they founded colonies.

THE MARRIAGE OF POCAHONTAS

MU

Their greed, and cruelty to the Indians should be explained as one reason for their many failures.

(b) FRENCH. The next study will be of the French including Verrazano and Champlain, and the settlements in Canada. The story of LaSalle, Marquette, and the French missionaries should be deferred until the story of the French and Indian War.

(c) JAMESTOWN. The settlement of Virginia and a full story of Jamestown, including John Smith, Pocahontas, Powhatan, the beginning of slavery, and all the early incidents of the life of that colony will establish the English in America.

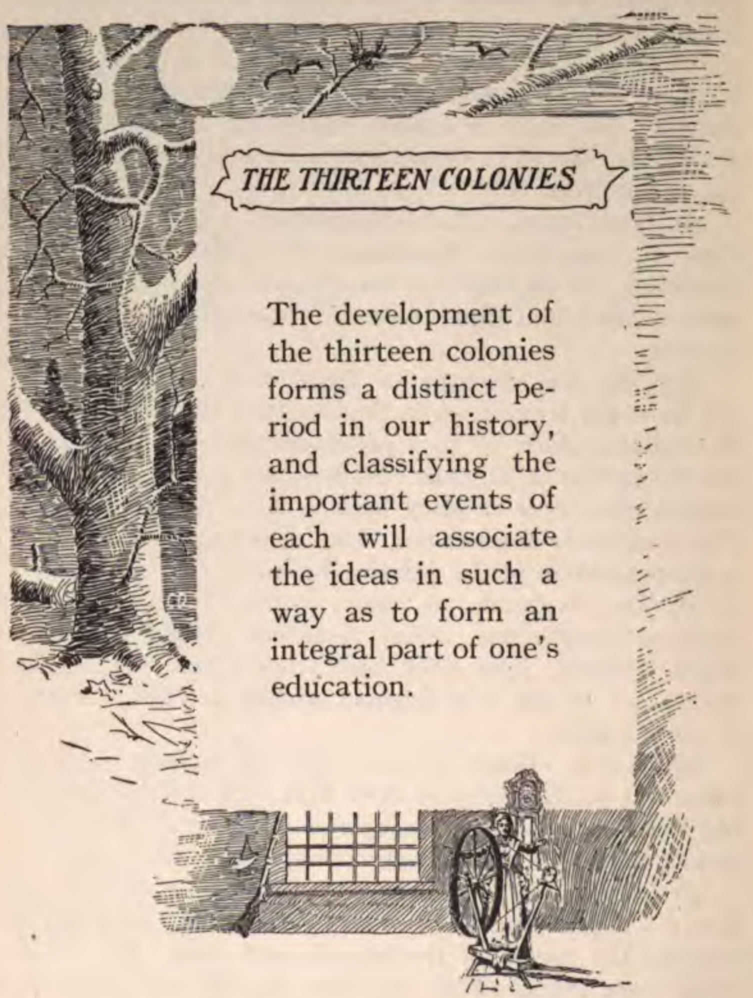
Describe the marriage of Pocahontas to John Rolfe, and show the importance in thus securing the friendship of the Indians, which led to a protracted peace between them and the settlers of Virginia. Some of the most distinguished families trace their ancestry back to Rolfe and Pocahontas. The color plate representing this important historic event is a reproduction of the painting by Henry Brueckner.

(d) THE PILGRIMS. A story of the Pilgrims and the Puritans, particularly Miles Standish, John Winthrop, Roger Williams, John Eliot, and a few others will explain the reasons for the New England colonies and the character of the colonists.

(e) DUTCH. Henry Hudson and his explorations, the settlement of the Dutch in New York, the Dutch character and Peter Stuyvesant will complete a story of the four great nations that came over to make settlements in America.

(f) REVIEW. The teacher will then be careful to see that the pupils get fixed in mind the nations that essayed colonies, the names of the leaders, and where the settlements were made. This will close the second section of the year's work.

(g) OTHER SETTLEMENTS. The settlement of Maryland, Pennsylvania and Georgia will present no difficulties, because Lord Baltimore, William Penn and James Oglethorpe are strong types and easily understood.



THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

The development of the thirteen colonies forms a distinct period in our history, and classifying the important events of each will associate the ideas in such a way as to form an integral part of one's education.

This and other designs show how pupils may illustrate their history note books. The design should always contain something symbolical of the event.

The making of some colonies by emigration from older colonies is not so easily taught, but may be impressed sufficiently by diagram and map study.

Unless a colony is founded and supported by some strong type of man or people, and represents some idea of settlement different from the other colonies, the teacher need not dwell too strongly upon it in the year's work. This will bring us to the foundation of the thirteen original colonies which should be memorized in detail, giving the names of the founders, the purpose of the foundation, etc.

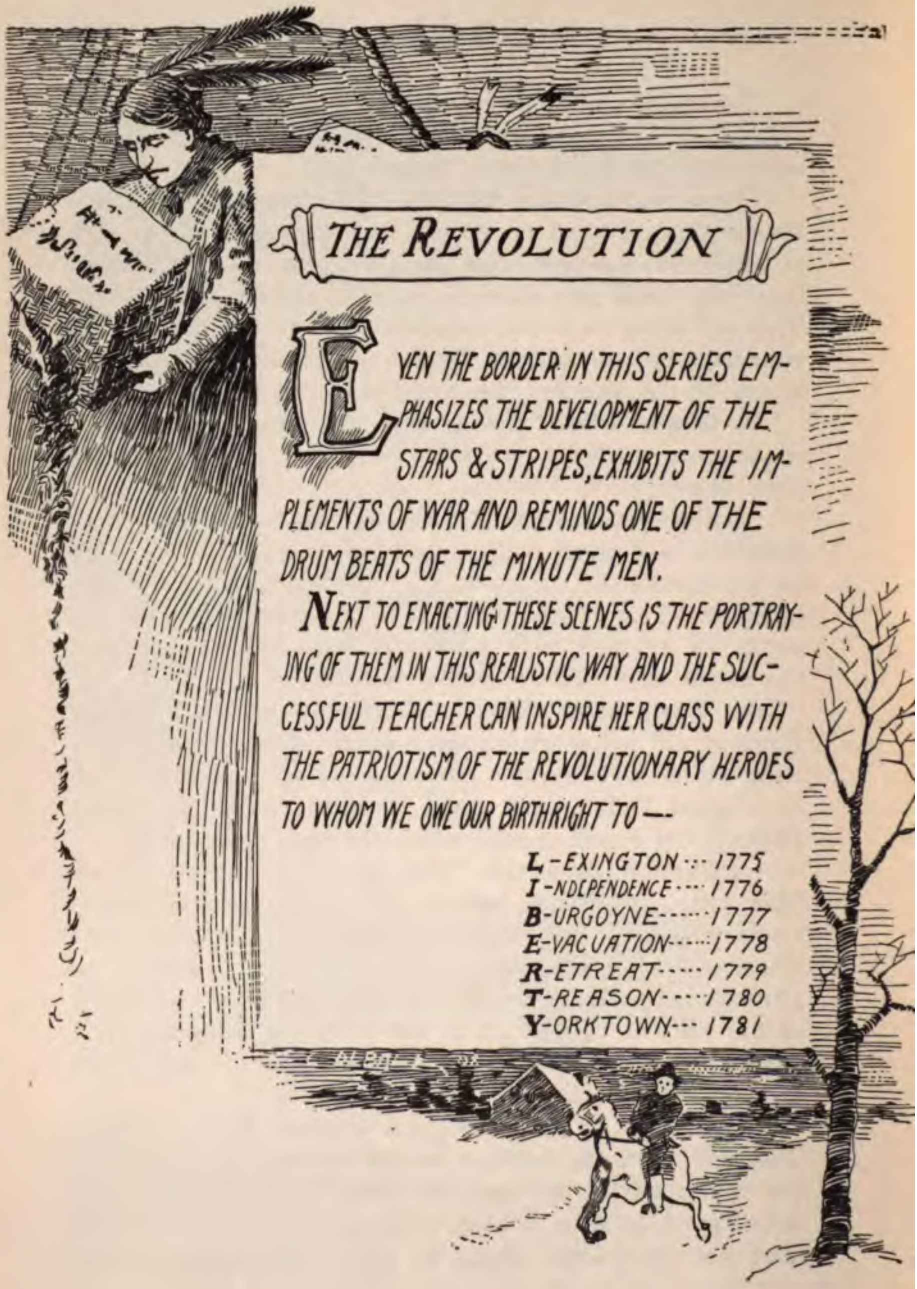
13. Colonial Wars. Having seen the colonies established in America, we come now to see how they had to fight for their existence.

(a) BACON'S REBELLION. The first story will be Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia, with a study of Nathaniel Bacon, and an explanation of the stand the people made for self-government. This should be followed by other stories of the perils the colonies were always in from the Indians, and the means they took to protect themselves.

(b) WARS IN NEW ENGLAND. The Indian Wars in New England will follow with a story of the Pequot War, and of King Philip particularly. Any incident of these men (such as Colonel Goffe), will make it more interesting. King Philip is the center around which the story will unfold.

(c) FRENCH PIONEERS. The stories of LaSalle, Joliet, Marquette, the French hunters and the missionaries belong to this section. (See *Jacques Marquette*, Vol. IV, page 204.) They can be made particularly pleasing on account of adventurous features attached to their lives. The purpose of the story is to lead up to the French and Indian War. Abundant use of outline maps is necessary to define the territory explored and claimed.

(d) STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH. This will naturally lead us to the Indian wars preceding the first struggle between the French and English. The wars known as King William's War and Queen Anne's War need not be studied except in their picturesque features,



THE REVOLUTION

EVEN THE BORDER IN THIS SERIES EMPHASIZES THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STARS & STRIPES, EXHIBITS THE IMPLEMENTS OF WAR AND REMINDS ONE OF THE DRUM BEATS OF THE MINUTE MEN.

NEXT TO ENACTING THESE SCENES IS THE PORTRAYING OF THEM IN THIS REALISTIC WAY AND THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHER CAN INSPIRE HER CLASS WITH THE PATRIOTISM OF THE REVOLUTIONARY HEROES TO WHOM WE OWE OUR BIRTHRIGHT TO—

L-EXINGTON ····· 1775
I-NDEPENDENCE ····· 1776
B-URGOYNE ······ 1777
E-VACUATION ······ 1778
R-ETREAT ····· 1779
T-REASON ····· 1780
Y-ORKTOWN ··· 1781

since they were mere incidents to the greater war to follow.

(1) *Washington.* Studies in the early life of George Washington; full story of his message to the French, and the defeat of Braddock will afford a splendid type study for the grade. Emphasis should be placed upon the manly qualities of the young man, and his soldierly conduct. Compare his caution and skill with Braddock's vanity and carelessness.

(2) *Quebec.* The Fall of Quebec is the closing topic of this section, with a study of James Wolfe as a typical hero. All the incidents are valuable and easily illustrated by maps, outlines, drawings and pictures.

14. Early Customs. The year's work should close with a study of the homes of the colonists, those of the better sort as well as the frontier cabins; the occupations, dress, sports of the people in both northern and southern colonies; the peculiar laws; methods of travel; methods of punishment; belief in witchcraft; the observance of Sunday in New England; newspapers; servants; slavery, and all other facts relating to the daily life of the people in the primitive days of our national life. (See *Knickerbocker Life in New York*, Vol. IV, page 212.)

15. The Topical Method. It is now evident that the proper way to teach history is by the topical method, and that each topic should be rounded out full and distinct, and be a complete event in the child's mind. It may take several lessons to complete this unit, as it takes several chapters to complete one story; but the whole story should be finished before another one is taken up.

The only way we know anything is by the relation and connection of the parts. It is a mistake to study history as if it were a calendar, and all the events were strung on the thread of time. On the other hand, all the facts concerning one great subject should be grasped in one story though they cover a number of years. This is the topical as opposed to the chronological treatment.

A sense of proportion is necessary to decide what events are important and what are not. As a general thing, those events that amounted to nothing, and were not controlling in their influence on future history are not important. Those events which colored the history of our country ever afterwards should be thoroughly studied. Without this sense of proportion a sad confusion will arise in the teaching of history.

16. Parallel Reading. The teacher should have access to a library that will afford explanatory and accompanying literature to the topics in history. This leads the children to appreciate literature, and turn to it with eagerness and understanding. For this grade the following list is suggested:

(a) PROSE. *Norse Stories.* Mabie. *American Indians.* Starr. *Pilgrims and Puritans.* Moore. *Grandfather's Chair.* Hawthorne.

(b) POETRY. *Skeleton in Armor.* Longfellow. *Columbus.* Joaquin Miller. *Hiawatha.* Longfellow. *Landing of the Pilgrims.* Mrs. Hemans. *Courtship of Miles Standish.* Longfellow. *Evangeline.* Longfellow. *Snow Bound.* Whittier.

17. Written Work. This may be of two kinds, the first kind being a test of what the pupil knows; the second, a reproduction, summary or original statement of his information on any subject. The first kind of writing appeals to the memory only. The second kind will appeal to the imagination, and makes the pupil live the life of the character he writes about, and is creative as well as reproductive.

The following topics are suitable for exercises of this sort in the sixth grade.

(1) The story told by one of the sailors on board the *Santa Maria*, upon his return to Spain.

(2) A description of an Indian attack upon the village in which you are now supposed to live.

(3) Write a letter home to England, describing your hardships at Jamestown during the first year.

(4) Write a description of how the settlers in Jamestown chose wives from among the young women sent over.

(5) Suppose you were present at the death of King Philip, and write an account of what you saw.

(6) Suppose you were with Wolfe at Quebec; write about the way you and your companions climbed the precipice.

This list is merely suggestive of how an enterprising teacher can relate the history lesson to language, and can relieve the dull pages of the ordinary text-book by introducing those features which appeal to the children's instinct of novelty.

OUTLINES OF WORK FOR THE SEVENTH YEAR

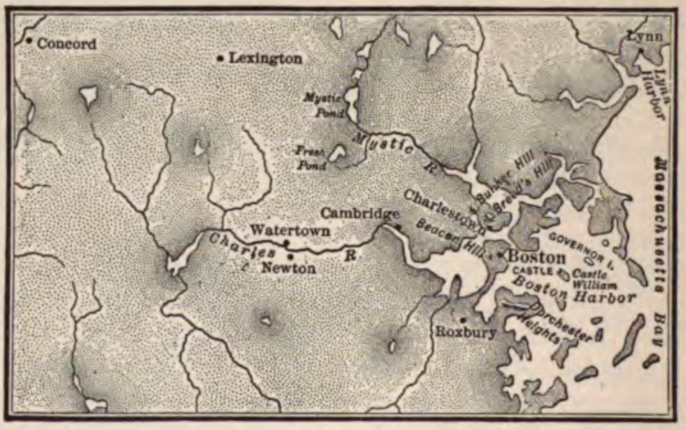
18. Allotment of Time. In outlining the work for the seventh grade it seems most reasonable to devote one-third of the time to the war of the Revolution, one-third to the period of development, and the remainder to the causes which led to the Civil War. While the war of the Revolution is a topic of wide range of treatment, yet it does not deserve so much emphasis as do the more peaceable exploits of the nation. Out of it rise certain epochal ideas and men that are more to be considered than the record of battles fought. The Revolution then will divide itself into three parts, the beginnings of the Revolution, the main incidents, and the main characters.

19. The Beginnings of Revolution. This will include an explanation of what things the colonists came to America to escape, and why they resented any oppressive measures by the mother country. Then a description of the oppressive acts in detail, and how each was resented by the people. The Stamp Act should be especially studied, and Patrick Henry used as a type story, representing the popular indignation.

The next story will take us into the beginnings of the conflict where we study the Boston Massacre and the battles of Lexington and Concord. Paul Revere, John Hancock and Samuel Adams are prominent types in this section of study. Illustrate by map the route traveled by Revere, as well as battle fields.

For collateral reading use *The Concord Hymn*, Emerson; and *Paul Revere's Ride*, Longfellow.

The battle of Bunker Hill is one of the few battles that need to be studied as battles. For that purpose a diagram on the blackboard, or better still, a model on the sand table, or in the play ground, will make the movements more definite. A picture of the Bunker Hill Monument and extracts from Webster's oration on laying the corner stone and *Grandmother's Story of the Battle of Bunker Hill* by Holmes will complete the story.

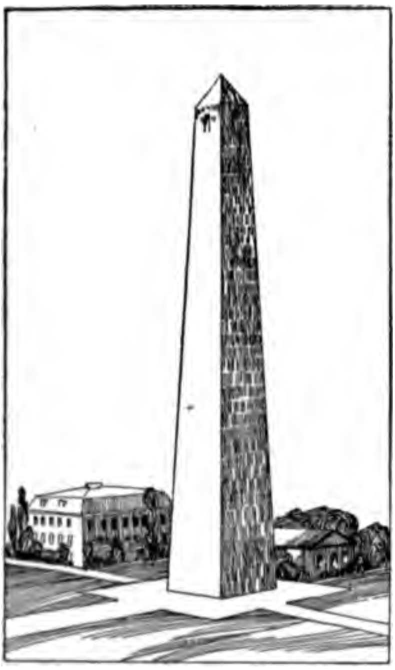


BOSTON AND VICINITY, 1775

20. The Main Incidents of the Revolution. These should be covered with a broad treatment. The main topics are the Declaration of Independence; the battles around New York, Trenton, Princeton, and the surrender of Burgoyne. Then turn to the war in the South, using Marion and Sumter as types of leaders in a desperate cause. Study the Battle of King's Mountain and explain its crucial effects on the war. Then hasten to the surrender of Cornwallis, and its picturesque features. A few striking incidents should be studied, such as Arnold's Treason; Valley Forge; the patriotism of the women and the courage of the leaders.

For references to the Revolution see "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution." (Hart.)

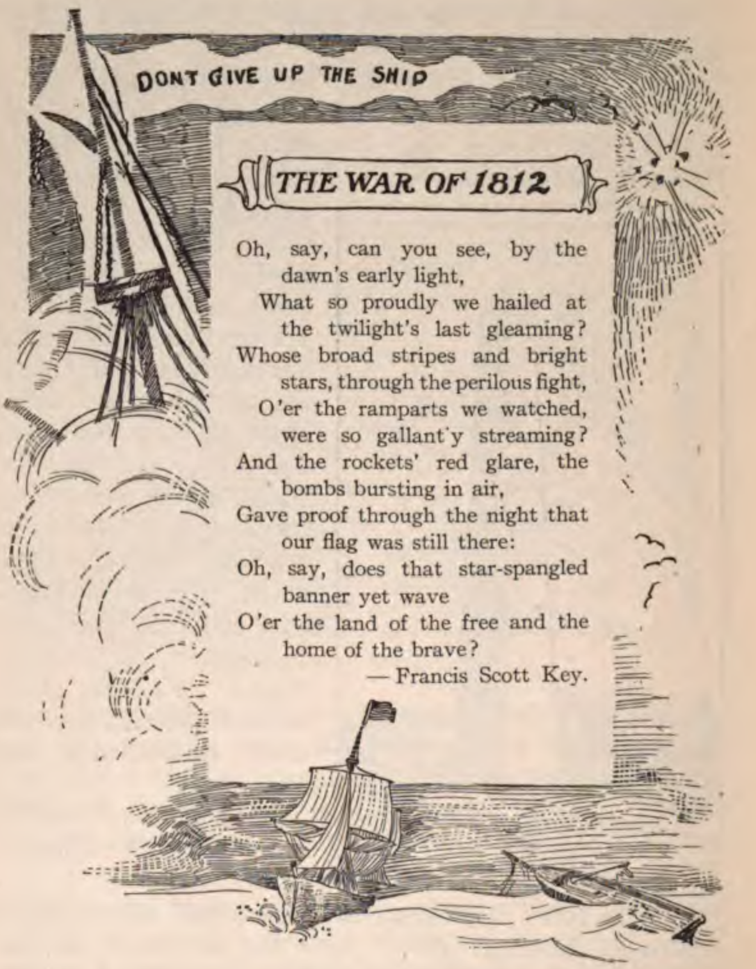
(a) TYPICAL CHARACTERS. George Washington as a great leader and strategist deserves especial study — particularly at Trenton and Princeton. (See Type Study, *George Washington*, page 234.) Benjamin Franklin needs an exhaustive story, particularly as to his influence in foreign courts. John Paul Jones and his exploits on the sea need mention, but not in great detail. George Rogers Clark and his conquest of the Northwest Territory, and what it meant at the time, should be carefully reviewed and studied. These four characters represent influence over the entire field, but such men as Putnam, Jasper, Nathan Hale, Robert Morris, Lafayette, should be studied in their setting.


BUNKER HILL MONUMENT

For collateral reading use, *Song of Marion's Men*. Bryant.

21. The Period of Development. This period will cover that portion of American history from the end of the Revolution to the beginning of the administration of Andrew Jackson. This is the second section of the work for this year. It contains a few important topics and several notable characters.

(a) THE CONSTITUTION. The formation of the Constitution is the first and most obvious topic. This will not be easy to teach pupils at this stage of advancement, and


DONT GIVE UP THE SHIP

THE WAR OF 1812

Oh, say, can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched, were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there:
Oh, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?
— Francis Scott Key.

This border is suggestive of war on the ocean. It is appropriate because in the War of 1812, the American Navy achieved distinction. The design is one that any pupil can reproduce.

the details should be left to high school and college study. The main facts, however, may be presented — especially those making clear the Constitution's meaning, and what the Constitution really is. The document itself may be shown to the pupils, and discussions about the President, Congress, post offices, and other national facts already known to the pupils should follow. (See *Civil Government*, page 311.)

(b) POLITICAL PARTIES. The rise of political parties on the construction of the Constitution is a vague topic to pupils also, and needs to be lightly treated at this stage of study. Alexander Hamilton is the founder of our financial system, and his work should be emphasized.

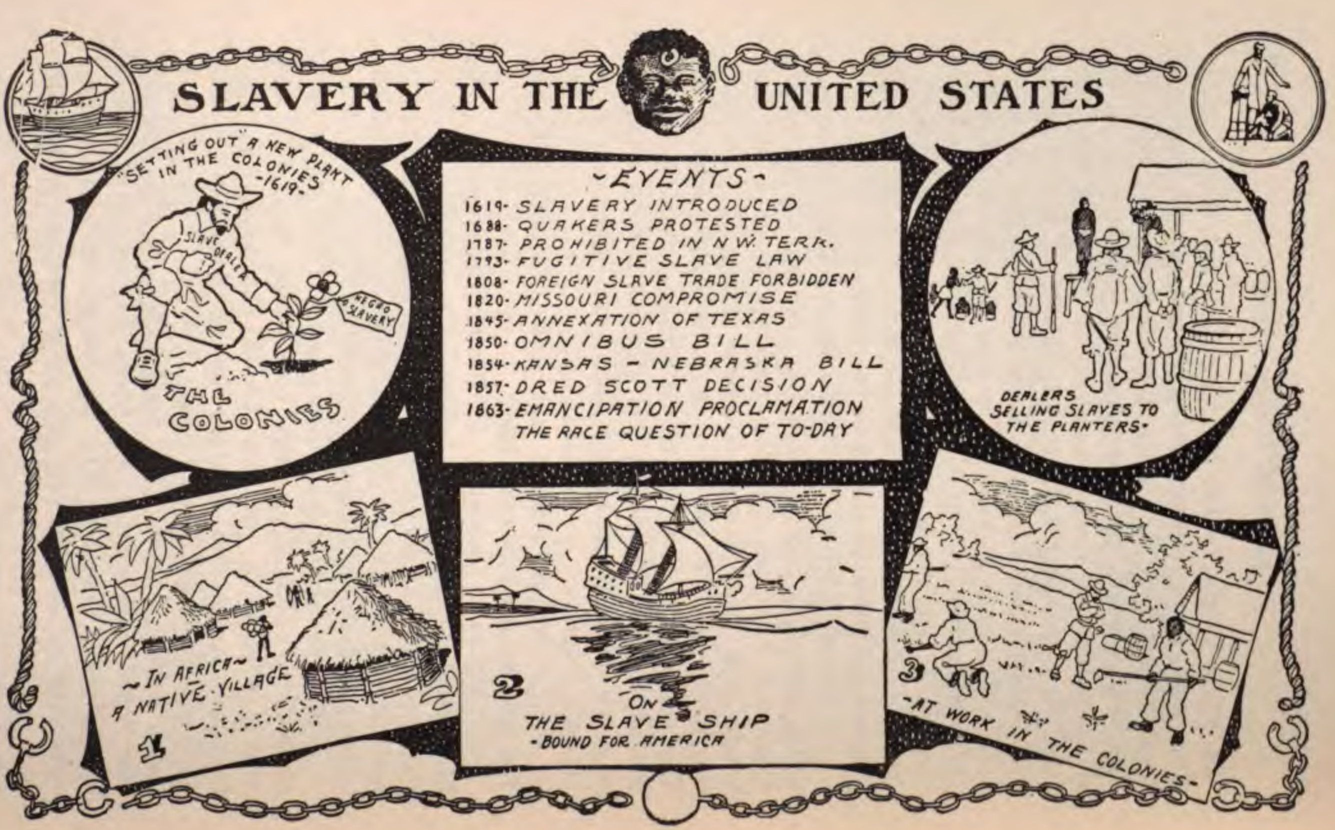
(c) OTHER TOPICS. The other topics of importance are a full story of Thomas Jefferson, and his character; the Louisiana Purchase and the explorations of Lewis and Clark; (see Type Study, *Louisiana Purchase*, page 262); the main facts of the War of 1812. The story of Eli Whitney and the invention of the cotton gin, and of Robert Fulton and the steamboat, will afford a variety from the sequence of political history that vexes this era of the nation's progress.

For collateral reading use *Old Ironsides*. Holmes. *The Star Spangled Banner*. Key.

(d) MONROE DOCTRINE, MISSOURI COMPROMISE. The Monroe Doctrine and the Missouri Compromise are both topics that are so far-reaching in their influence that they both deserve especial study as establishing certain positions of our natural standard and declaration.

The period should close with a story of the condition of the country after fifty years of national life. This will include studies on the Erie Canal; the locomotive; the telegraph; the growth of cities; the use of coal, of gas; the development of the post office, etc.

22. Political Changes. The third section of work for this year begins with a story of Andrew Jackson, as a type of the self-made American who was reared among the stern conditions of frontier life, and who becomes a national



SLAVERY IN THE UNITED STATES

~EVENTS~

1619 - SLAVERY INTRODUCED
1688 - QUAKERS PROTESTED
1787 - PROHIBITED IN N.W. TERR.
1793 - FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW
1808 - FOREIGN SLAVE TRADE FORBIDDEN
1820 - MISSOURI COMPROMISE
1845 - ANNEXATION OF TEXAS
1850 - OMNIBUS BILL
1854 - KANSAS - NEBRASKA BILL
1857 - DRED SCOTT DECISION
1863 - EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION
THE RACE QUESTION OF TO-DAY

"SETTING OUT" A NEW PLANT IN THE COLONIES -1619-
SLAVE DEALER
NEGRO SLAVERY
THE COLONIES
DEALERS SELLING SLAVES TO THE PLANTERS.
1
~IN AFRICA~ A NATIVE VILLAGE
2
ON THE SLAVE SHIP -BOUND FOR AMERICA
3
-AT WORK IN THE COLONIES-

character. Stories of his early life and of his peculiar temperament should be told. This should be followed by his policy towards South Carolina and the leaders of nullification. The great debate between Webster and Hayne can be made a part of the study of Jackson's life. (See Type Study, *Andrew Jackson*, page 273.)

The growth of the country and permanent improvements appropriately belong here. A story of Morse and the telegraph, and McCormick and the harvesting machine will serve as types. The beginnings of the express companies; the use of anaesthetics in surgery; the invention of the sewing machine; the making of paper, penknives, cooking stoves, matches, and many other things should be studied—all adding to the comforts of home life and facilitating business.

23. Mexican War. The War with Mexico and its consequences, is the next topic of the year, and can well occupy a large portion of the attention of the class. This topic will cover the story of the revolution of Texas, and its annexation to the United States, as the cause of the war. The story of Santa Anna and the Massacre at the Alamo will be the central point of interest. The battle of San Jacinto will follow as an incident, and the story of Texas as a State—its size and industries —will afford a geographical relation to the history study.

For parallel reading use *The Defense of the Alamo.* Miller.

The actual events of the war need not be developed too clearly. The campaign was short and one-sided, and General Taylor presents only a few points of interest.

(a) TERRITORY ACQUIRED. The main points after the war are the territory we acquired; then follows the long story of the development of the West; the crossing of the plains; the discovery of gold; the rush to the gold fields; the story of the "Forty Niners"; life in the early days on the Pacific Slope; etc. This affords one of the most fruitful sources for interest and study of character. The stories of the early explorers are not more thrilling than are these, told by the bold spirits who crossed the continent in '49 in search of wealth and adventure.

(b) SLAVERY. Then comes the question of slavery in this territory; the struggle in Kansas; the disputes in Congress; the many laws that were passed; the compromises and delays; the gathering of the war clouds that resulted in our great Civil War.

24. Suggestions. This is the proper grade to begin thoughtful written exercises that develop civic impulse and pride. We may well abandon some of the purely imaginary work on the pupil's part and let him think of causes and results.

Such topics for this grade may be:

(1) The reasons why a Constitution was necessary, and what it has done for the nation.

(2) Why George Washington deserves to be called "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

(3) Of all the inventions studied which are the greatest, and why?

(4) For what traits of character should Jefferson be admired?

(5) In what way does life on the frontier develop character?

(6) Compare the comforts of home life now with the discomforts in early days.

(7) Write your opinion of the "Spoils System" of office.

OUTLINES OF WORK FOR THE EIGHTH GRADE

25. The Civil War. This grade will find itself confronted with the incidents of the civil war, and the final portion of our national history. In the beginning, the teacher should be careful to instill no bitterness or personal feeling into the study of the great war, nor teach any sectional likes or dislikes. Our country is too great, and our tra-

LINCOLN AND HIS CABINET

MU

ditions too noble for the youth to be reared with any motive except that of making them citizens of the entire country, proud of deeds of their forefathers and forgetful of all past differences. Children are far removed from prejudice of all kinds, and this should not be introduced by an unwise teacher in any department of study, least of all in the study of our country.

(a) PERIOD OF DISUNION. This is the story of the Civil War which will occupy the grade for about half the year. The type stories, so far as men are concerned, will be Lincoln, Davis, Lee and Grant. Around these will arrange themselves all the arguments for and against secession, and all the turning points in the military history of the war. The reasons the South gave for secession and the reasons the North gave for preserving the Union should be catalogued, analyzed and discussed.

(b) EVENTS OF THE WAR. A map study should accompany all the campaigns, and only the great movements should be treated in detail. The topics that seem most worth while are:

(1) The bombardment of Fort Sumter and its effect.

(2) The First Battle of Manassas (or Bull Run) and its effects.

(3) The Northern plan of campaign and how it was carried out.

(4) Events on the sea, blockades, story of the Alabama, etc.

(5) The Merrimac and the Monitor, and a new idea in naval warfare.

(6) The Emancipation Proclamation and its effects.

(7) The Battle of Gettysburg (studied in detail).

(8) The fall of Vicksburg and what it meant.

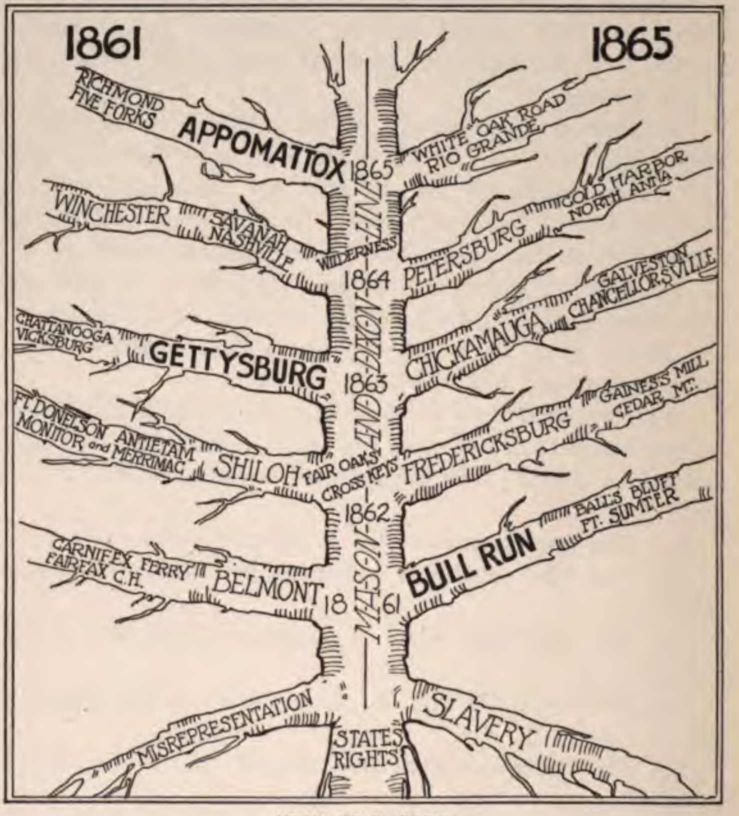
(9) Sherman's Campaign through the South.

(10) Grant and Lee in Virginia.

(11) The surrender of Lee's army.

(c) OTHER TOPICS. Studies in hardship, heroism and sacrifice on both sides.

By the above outline many of the details are left out, and they may as well be, since the child would not remember them if they were taught him. Special studies of such characters as Stonewall Jackson, Phil Sheridan, W. T. Sherman and a few others will emphasize the heroic side of the war.



CIVIL WAR TREE

COLLATERAL READING. *The Battle Hymn of the Republic.* Julia Ward Howe. *Maryland, My Maryland.* James R. Randall. *Bonnie Blue Flag.* H. McCarthy. *Lincoln's Gettysburg Speech*; *Davis' Farewell to the Senate*; *Sheridan's Ride.* Thos. B. Read. *O, Captain, my Captain.* Walt Whitman. *Hammer and Rapier.* John Esten Cooke. *Two Little Confederates.* Thos. Nelson Page. *The Blue and the Gray.* Francis M. Finch.

26. Period of Reunion. The concluding section of this year's work may well be termed the *Period of Reunion*, and embrace all subjects that are worth while from the Civil War to the present day. Most of these facts relate to the expansion of our industries and the growth of business. The topics most worth while are:

(1) The reconstruction of the southern states.
(2) The purchase of Alaska, with studies on Alaska.
(3) The growth of the South after the war.
(4) The War with Spain and its results.
(5) The Panama Canal and its advantages. (See Type Study, *Panama Canal*, Vol. IV, page 403.)
(6) The growth of the West in recent years.
(7) The new national idea.

27. Current History. The concluding topics bring us into the range of events that are happening in our own experience, and bring history down to date—even the very day upon which the pupils are in school. This makes the study of current history most valuable and attractive to pupils. What is going on in the world; what wars, if any, are in progress and where, and what about; what political changes are about to take place, or are taking place; what discoveries, inventions and explorations are announced in the world; what world characters are on the stage, and what are they saying and doing; who are at the helm of state and nation, and what are their opinions and policies — all are questions easily in the range of a child's knowledge and certainly in his interest. For that purpose a map should be used; a paper should be subscribed for; a scrap book should be kept; a blackboard record should be made by pupils; a good reference work should be at hand; and discussions and opinions should be called for daily.

28. Collateral Texts. In this grade especially the teacher will find it helpful to resort to the use of as many collateral texts as can be made available. The class will probably have one prescribed book that each child buys, or is supplied with, but the teacher should have half a dozen good text books, from authors representing many sides of the war, and recent issues, so that the pupil may have them for reference. For instance, in the story of the Civil War, it is well to have a few books written by authors from the North and from the South, so that both sides can be represented in the pupil's investigations. Then the pupils can find out what each author has to say on any one subject, and can contribute that to the general information of the class. This will lead the pupils to the library-method of study; teach them the value of investigation; and the use of reference books to find all information, and to correct any one author's view on any subject. Indeed, the school should have a library of historical books, good for general reading as well as for reference upon any particular subject. History is the one subject that needs variety in the telling, and no one book can tell it all. A wise teacher who really loves the subject, will lead the pupils into many wonderful paths of knowledge by having at hand some books that supplement the daily text, of which pupils so readily become weary.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

SIXTH YEAR

29. Before the Coming of Columbus. The general belief concerning the shape of the earth (give map); the dreaded seas; trade routes to the East; the exploration of the Norsemen; the Norse Sagas.

30. Christopher Columbus. His early life; a seaway to India; his disappointments; Ferdinand and Isabella; the first voyage; discovery of land; his other voyages; his last days. (See Type Study, *Columbus*, page 196.)

31. Other Explorers. John Cabot, Americus Vespucius; Balboa; Magellan.

32. The Indians. Origin; their appearance; their clothing; the women; tribes; wigwams; warfare; religion; treaties. (See Type Study, *Iroquois Indians*, page 208.)

33. Spanish Explorers and Settlers. Ponce de Leon; Hernando de Soto; St. Augustine founded; Santa Fé founded.

34. French Explorers and Settlers. Verrazano; Jacques Cartier; Samuel de Champlain; Quebec founded.

35. English Settlers in Virginia. Sir Walter Raleigh and his Colonies; the English companies; Jamestown; hardships; Captain John Smith; Pocahontas; the starving time; Sir Thomas Gates; Lord Delaware; tobacco; wives; the new charter; the first Colonial Assembly; slavery introduced; Indian massacre.

36. English Settlers in New England. The Pilgrims; Plymouth; hardships; Samoset and Squanto; Canonicus; Miles Standish; the Puritans; Boston founded; John Winthrop; New Hampshire and Maine; Roger Williams; Anne Hutchinson; Thomas Hooker. (See Type Study, *Puritans*, page 221.)

37. The Dutch in New York. Henry Hudson; the Indians; New Amsterdam; New Netherlands; Peter Stuyvesant; Dutch life; English take possession.

38. Other Colonies. (a) MARYLAND. Lord Baltimore; his powers; St. Mary's founded; trouble with the Virginians.

(b) NEW JERSEY AND DELAWARE. Berkeley and Carteret; Elizabethtown; Peter Minuit; beginning of Delaware.

(c) PENNSYLVANIA. The Quakers; William Penn; Pennsylvania granted; Penn's treaty; Philadelphia; Mason and Dixon's line.

(d) THE CAROLINAS. The territory granted; the Settlers; the Grand Model; Carolina divided; the Tuscaroras; the life of the people; Charleston.

(e) GEORGIA. Oglethorpe; Savannah founded; Tomochichi; other settlements; the Spanish invasion.

39. Progress of the Colonies. The Cavaliers in Virginia; Sir William Berkeley; Bacon's Rebellion; Indian neighbors; John Eliot; block houses; war with the Pequots; war with King Philip; Sir Edmund Andros; charter oak.

40. The Establishment of the French. Explorations of Marquette and Joliet; the voyage of LaSalle; founding of New Orleans; Louisiana; the purposes of the French in America.

41. Conflicts with the French. Conflicting claims of English and French; Count Frontenac; King William's War; Queen Anne's War; King George's War.

(a) THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. The young George Washington; message to the French commander; Franklin's proposed union; Braddock's defeat; the fall of Quebec.

42. Life in the Colonies. Pioneer homes; Virginia mansions; industries in New England; industries in New York; industries in the South; clothing; sports; pillory and stocks; travel; witchcraft; pirates; meeting houses; services; Sunday observance; Harvard College; William and Mary College; indentured servants; slaves; slave trade; insurrection.

SEVENTH YEAR

43. The Revolutionary War. (a) BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION. Navigation Acts; laws regulating manufactures; oppressive taxes; writs of assistance; James Otis; the Stamp Act; Patrick Henry; the Boston Massacre; Boston Tea Party.

(b) THE WAR IN THE NORTH. Paul Revere's Ride; the battle of Lexington; battle of Bunker Hill; capture of Ticonderoga; Washington in command; the British leave Boston; the British attack Charleston; Sergeant Jasper; the Declaration of Independence; the British enter New York; Nathan Hale; the retreat across New Jersey; the battle of Trenton; battle of Princeton; Lafayette; the surrender of Burgoyne; capture of Philadelphia; Valley Forge; battle of Monmouth; treason of Benedict Arnold.

(c) THE WAR IN THE SOUTH. Capture of Savannah; capture of Charleston; irregular warfare; Marion, Sumter; battle of Camden; battle of King's Mountain; Nathanael Greene; Yorktown; surrender of Cornwallis.

(d) SOME HEROES OF THE REVOLUTION. Benjamin Franklin: his practical ideas; his service in England; his life in Paris. John Paul Jones: his command; his fleet; his engagement with the *Serapis*. Daniel Boone: his pioneer habits; his explorations. George Rogers Clark: his capture of Kaskaskia; his capture of Vincennes.

44. Organizing the Union. Conditions after the Revolution; limited powers of the Continental Congress; Shay's Rebellion, necessity for union; the Constitution of the United States; political parties; George Washington made President; Hamilton's financial scheme; locating the capital; Citizen Genet; Washington's foreign policy. (See *Civil Government*, page 317.)

45. Progress of the Union. Eli Whitney and the cotton Gin; John Adams, President; trouble with France; Alien and Sedition laws; Thomas Jefferson, President; the Barbary pirates; Stephen Decatur and the Tripolitans; the Louisiana Purchase; Lewis and Clark (see Type Study, *Louisiana Purchase*, page 262); Robert Fulton and the steamboat.

46. The War of 1812. Impressing seamen; Embargo of 1807; James Madison, President; battle of Tippecanoe; surrender of Detroit; *Constitution* and *Guerriere*; other naval victories; battle of Lake Erie; battle of the Thames; Indian troubles in the South; Washington City captured; Baltimore attacked; battle of New Orleans; treaty of peace; Hartford Convention.

47. Progress of the Nation. James Monroe, President; tariff discussion; Missouri Compromise; Monroe Doctrine; visit of Lafayette; John Quincy Adams, President; the Erie Canal; the National Road; the locomotive; New York City; Philadelphia; coal; anthracite; gas; the westward movement; settlers' cabins, stage coaches; post offices.

48. The Times of Andrew Jackson. Jackson's early life; his career as a soldier; his character; new political parties; elected President; the Spoils System; opposition to the United States Bank; removal of the deposits; pet banks; panic of 1837; Indian troubles in Florida; the Georgia Indians; the tariff disputes; Webster and Hayne; nullification; John C. Calhoun; the Force Bill; Clay's Compromise.

49. War with Mexico. Hard-cider campaign; Texas revolts; the massacre at the Alamo; Texas admitted; inventions; harvesting machine; electric telegraph; War with Mexico; Taylor along the Rio Grande; Scott captures the City of Mexico; Wilmot proviso.

50. Disputes About Slavery. Opening the West; the Mormons; discovery of gold; the forty-niners; the question of slavery; the abolition movement; the admission of California; slave trade; fugitive slave laws; Compromise of 1850; Uncle Tom's Cabin.

51. Sectional Differences. Political parties; squatter sovereignty; Kansas-Nebraska bill; Kansas war; Dred Scott decision; John Brown raid; election of Lincoln.

EIGHTH YEAR

52. Secession of the Southern States. The Confederate states organized; reasons for disunion; the attitude of the South; the North and the South compared.

(a) ABRAHAM LINCOLN. President of the United States; his early life; his education; his character; Lincoln-Douglas debates; his inaugural address.

(b) JEFFERSON DAVIS. President of the Confederate States; his education; his career as a soldier; his career as a statesman; his farewell to the Senate.

(c) ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS. His efforts to prevent secession.

53. The Civil War. (a) THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR. Efforts for peace; Fort Sumter bombarded; the call for soldiers; first battle of Manassas; retreat to Washington; Northern plan of the war; Forts Henry and Donelson; battle of Shiloh; capture of New Orleans.

(b) EVENTS ON THE SEA. Blockade of Southern ports; running the blockade; the Trent affair; the *Alabama*; Alabama claims; the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*; the duel in Hampton Roads.

(c) PROGRESS OF THE WAR. McClellan in the Peninsula;

Jackson's Valley campaign; Robert E. Lee in command; Stuart's ride around McClellan; battles around Richmond.

(d) ROBERT E. LEE. His early life; his career in Mexico; his devotion to Virginia; his character and habits. (See Type Study, *Robert E. Lee*, page 179.)

(e) ULYSSES S. GRANT. His early life; education; his occupation before the war; his career as a soldier.

(f) THE CRISES IN THE WAR. Second Battle of Manassas; Antietam; Fredericksburg; proclamation of emancipation; Chancellorsville; Gettysburg; the fall of Vicksburg.

(g) THE CLOSING CAMPAIGN. Chickamauga; Ulysses S. Grant in command; Sherman's campaign; Grant and Lee in Virginia; battles of the Wilderness; Cold Harbor; Petersburg; Sheridan's raid; exhaustion of the Confederacy; the surrender of General Lee; assassination of Lincoln; capture of Davis.

(h) HARDSHIPS OF THE WAR. Cost; suffering; scarcity of supplies; clothing; Confederate money; the women; the negroes; the prisoners.

54. Reconstruction Era. Andrew Johnson, President; constitutional amendments; Johnson quarrels with Congress; his impeachment and trial; conditions in the South; negroes; Kuklux; freedman's bureau.

55. Return of Peace. Chicago fire; Boston fire; panic of 1873; Whiskey Ring; resumption of specie payments; Centennial Exposition; Hayes and Tilden controversy; electoral commission; withdrawal of troops from the South; strikes and riots; assassination of Garfield.

56. Progress of the Nation. Civil Service reform; two cent postage; standard time; the presidential succession; Statue of Liberty; interstate commerce commission; Chinese exclusion; revision of the tariff; Pan-American Congress; McKinley Tariff Bill; the World's Columbian Exposition.

57. War with Spain. Rebellion in Cuba; destruction of the *Maine*; battle of Manila; exploit of Hobson; El Caney and San Juan; destruction of Cervera's fleet; treaty of peace; territorial expansion; war in the Philippines; Cuba a free republic.

58. Enterprises and Inventions. The Atlantic Cable; electric light; telephone; suspension bridges; oil wells.

(a) THE WEST. Growth of Western cities; the pony express; Pacific railways; Homestead Act; the Indians; opening of Oklahoma; Western farms; machinery.

(b) THE SOUTH. Cotton crop; New Orleans and the Eads jetties; Cotton Centennial; expositions; education; fruit crops; cotton mills; corn fields; crude oil; iron industry.

59. Theodore Roosevelt. The Railroad Strike. The Panama Canal. The Russo-Japanese War and Treaty of Portsmouth. The Hague Conference. The Philippines.

William H. Taft. The tariff. The Interstate Commerce Act. The Postal Savings Banks.

Woodrow Wilson. Revision of the Tariff. The Federal Reserve Banks. Troubles with Mexico. The European War.

Warren G. Harding. Foreign policy Domestic problems.

ANCIENT AND EUROPEAN PARALLELS

60. Other History Necessary. Up to this time we have said little if anything about any history except American history, but we should not ignore the fact that American history had its beginning in European conditions, and that the studies of our own great men and events have parallels and connections in other history than ours.

(a) BIBLE STORIES. Bible stories should be included in the history course of the lower grades. The story of Abraham, Joseph and his brothers, Ruth, David, Jonah and others from the Old Testament in many cases afford parallels to our modern heroes. Also the following:

(b) ROMAN HISTORY. Stories from Roman history, such as Romulus, Curtius, Horatius, the Christian Martyrs.

(c) THE GREEKS. Stories of the Greeks, such as the Trojan War, the adventures of Ulysses.

(d) THE GERMANS. Stories from the Germans, such as Siegfried; and from the English, such as the Legends of King Arthur, and Robin Hood.

AMERICAN BATTLEFIELDS IN FRANCE

BY

DR. CHARLES A. McMURRY

In the spring of 1918 the Germans, believing that American troops could not be brought to Europe in large numbers for six months, and that the French and English were at the end of their resources, prepared for a colossal drive on the Western Front to break through between the French and English armies, capture the channel ports and end the war.

The drive began on March 20, and was directed at the English lines facing St. Quentin. The English were driven back, but managed to reorganize and hold new positions, still in contact with the French.

One of the results of the German advance was the unification of the Allied command in France. At the beginning of the German offensive, General Pershing offered his troops to the Allies to use as they desired, and it was his self-effacement, as well as the precarious situation of the Allied front that led to the consent of the British to the unified command and the selection of General Ferdinand Foch as a commander in chief of the Allied armies.

Accordingly, when the Germans began their attack on the French lines in the latter part of May, they were met by the united strength of all the Allied forces and were stopped, but not until they had thrust into the lines of the Allies a salient thirty miles deep, extending along the Marne from Château Thierry to Dormans. Paris was only forty-four miles away, and became the target for long distance artillery and for nightly air raids.

A new and significant factor, however, was coming into the struggle. American troops, coöperating with the French, were stationed on the front near Château Thierry, and were active not only in stopping the German advance but in regaining ground captured by the enemy.

Belleau Wood. The Second Division of the American army, consisting of marines and regulars, was stationed along the northern bank of the Marne, across the main road from Paris to Metz, and was given the "honor," as the American daily report said, of stopping the German advance toward Paris.

On June 4 the Americans occupied a five-mile line. In front of them the Germans held Belleau Wood, which, being nearly rectangular in shape, presented to the Americans a front of 1,100 yards, and seemed thickly covered with trees. The woods contained many clearings and hollows overgrown with bush, while scattered in the underbrush were great boulders. The enemy had taken advantage of the natural defenses of the place, and had improved them artificially. Machine guns were mounted on the rocks, while underneath natural caves offered shell-proof retreats.

The Americans attacked this position on June 10. The German lines were heavily bombarded before the troops advanced. American guns fired 40,000 rounds, 12,000 of which were large-calibre shells. A large part of the woods was captured, with 100 prisoners and many machine-guns. The next day the central part of the woods, with 400 prisoners and 37 machine guns, was taken. The German troops tried by counter-attacks to recover the lost ground, but without success. On the 25th the Americans attacked again, the infantry being first drawn back for some distance so the artillery could bombard the enemy's first line. Although the Germans had reënforced their troops in the northern part of the woods, the American attack was so strong that the enemy was driven out of his last hold on the woodland. American casualties were slight, while 309 prisoners were captured. American soldiers had proved that they knew how to fight.

Château Thierry. After a month of comparative quiet, the Germans, on the 15th of July, began their last drive, along a front extending from the Marne to the Argonne. At this time the Forty-second and Third divisions of the American Expeditionary Forces were at the front, supporting the French. In all 50,000 American soldiers were ready to meet the Germans.

In the sector held by the Forty-second Division the plan of battle provided for three positions. The first was held by a small force of French soldiers, who were to withdraw if the enemy's attack became strong. Three American battalions were stationed with French troops in the intermediate position, which was to be defended energetically. The third position, which was held by the rest of the American Division, was to be held at any cost.

The Third Division held the Marne east of Château Thierry, and was to prevent the enemy from crossing the river.

In the sector occupied by the Forty-second Division, the enemy broke through the first position and reached the intermediate position about 7:00 A.M. Here, the French and Americans not only repulsed all attacks, but drove the enemy back to the first position.

The Third Division defeated all attacks against it. Sharpshooters had been stationed in the front-line trenches, and in separate holes, and their fire played a large part in stopping the German advance. Each man aimed and fired as coolly as if he were practicing at home. The artillery stopped all the enemy's efforts to put bridges across the Marne, and the sharpshooters stopped all boats, so only small groups of Germans succeeded in reaching the American lines.

For several days the Germans renewed their offensive, but made no headway. Instead, the Allies were preparing to start an offensive of their own. There were over a million American troops in France, more were coming, and those that had been in action had proved themselves to be efficient fighters; so General Foch felt that he could begin a counter-offensive, relying upon the Americans as well as upon the French and English.

St. Mihiel. The first activities of the Americans during the offensive centered at St. Mihiel. For more than a year the French had considered plans for wiping out the St. Mihiel salient, and now the task was assigned to the American army under General Pershing. It was necessary for the attack to take place as soon as possible, before the autumn rains made the plains of the Woevre, where the fighting was to take place, too muddy for troop movements.

For the St. Mihiel operations, General Pershing commanded four French divisions as well as twelve American divisions, with 2,900 guns.

The proposed attack was kept as secret as possible. A report was spread that the Americans were getting ready for a drive on Alsace near Belfort. All movements of troops near St. Mihiel were masked; the infantry and artillery were moved at night, and concealed in the woods during the day. The front was only slightly held, so that the enemy would not suspect an attack. In this way, 500,000 soldiers were brought to the scene of action.

On August 30 Pershing took command of the First American Army sector, which extended from the Moselle almost to Verdun, a front of more than fifty miles. An examination of prisoners soon made indicated that an evacuation of the salient was being planned by the enemy.

The attack began at 5:00 A.M., September 12. After a four-hour bombardment French troops made a demonstration along the whole front, while two American attacks were launched, one starting east of St. Mihiel and advancing north to Vigneulles, the other, beginning at the Meuse, being directed southeast. The salient was triangular in shape, with the town of St. Mihiel located in the southwestern corner. The two American attacks, starting from the west and southeast sides of the triangle, proposed to meet near the center, forcing the enemy out of the southwestern angle and freeing the town of St. Mihiel.

A heavy mist combined with smoke to hide the troops as they moved across the plain northward, but code rocket signals sent up by the advancing infantry showed the artillery that the objectives were being reached. The Germans were completely surprised and had to stop their evacuation to defend themselves.

Four years of fighting had formed a complicated system of trenches over the ground covered by the attack, so the tanks had a hard time, but the infantry advanced in good style. Wire entanglements were either cut through or jumped over. The soldiers moved so quickly that charges that had been made ready for destroying the German defenses were not used. Only in the west, where the Germans held the high ground along the edge of the Woevre, did the enemy offer much resistance, but this had to give way before the American attack. All objectives were attained, and on the second day the two forces met at Vigneulles. The town of St. Mihiel was liberated; the Paris-Nancy railroad was cleared; the Germans were driven back into the plains of the Woevre, and the Allied front was straightened.

The Americans freed seventy villages, gained nearly 175 square miles of territory and captured 1,600 prisoners and 443 guns. The losses were 7,000 men, a large number of them only slightly wounded.

On September 13 Generals Pershing and Petain rode into St. Mihiel and were welcomed by the civilian population.

The Argonne and the Meuse. The St. Mihiel advance was hardly over when the French and English began a determined offensive against the entire German line west of the Aisne. The American forces were to advance toward Sedan, thus extending the line of attack from the Argonne to the Meuse. Success at this point would threaten, the German communications with Belgium and Northern France.

Accordingly, nine American divisions were sent to relieve the French on a seventy-mile front. Of these, three divisions had seen active service; two had held quiet sectors for about two months; one had experienced sixteen days in the trenches, and another ten; two had never been under fire.

The purpose of the American offensive was to force the Germans back across the Meuse and open a way for the French along the Aisne.

After a three-hour bombardment the Americans advanced, at 5:30 on the morning of September 26. They quickly crossed no-man's-land through old trenches and shell holes and reached the enemy lines. These were soon captured because, although well protected by barbed wire, they were weakly manned. The

Germans had been expecting another attack on the Woevre, and had only five divisions facing the Americans on the Argonne. Consequently, along the whole front the second line trenches were captured and held. The Americans penetrated the enemy lines four miles in some places and six miles in others. The Germans lost 9,000 prisoners, and had to take shelter in comparatively open country.

The advance of the American infantry was so rapid that the artillery was unable to keep up. The ground was extremely rough because of trenches and shell holes, and the whole area was muddy and slippery from recent rains. There were only a few roads through this region, and where they crossed abandoned trenches the American engineers had to make bridges and inclines before the artillery could be brought forward. Until the artillery arrived the infantry was unable to advance further, because of German machine-gun nests which could only be dislodged with the aid of cannon.

When the artillery came to the support of the infantry the advance began again, but more slowly. All through October the Americans pounded away at the German lines, gaining ground foot by foot.

Some of the most violent fighting of the war took place at this time, since the Germans realized the necessity of keeping control of the valley of the Meuse. The woods, gullies and ravines of the region rendered it necessary for many of the machine-gun nests to be attacked by infantry rather than by artillery, so that much of the fighting was hand to hand. During this period of fighting some of the most dramatic episodes of American activities occurred. Early in October six companies of the 308th Regiment, commanded by Major Whittlesey, were surrounded and cut off by the enemy. Without food, except for a few loaves of bread dropped by friendly aeroplanes, and attacked by a numerically superior force of Germans, the Americans refused to surrender, but held the position for four days until relieved by their comrades.

On October 12 the Second American Army was formed, and another attack broke the German's last line of defense.

ROBERT E. LEE

(Typical Study of a military leader.)

LAWTON B. EVANS, A.M.
Superintendent Schools, Augusta, Georgia

LESSON PLAN

Purpose. To teach the incidents of the boyhood, young manhood and the leading facts in the military career of Lee. To discover traits of character worthy of admiration.

Central Moral Motive. The study of a man who always did what he thought he ought to do.

OUTLINE:

1. His birth and parentage.
2. The incidents of his boyhood.
3. His education, and character as a student.
4. His life as a young engineer.
5. His career in the Mexican War.
6. His opinion of his duty to Virginia.
7. His career in the Civil War.
8. His last days.
9. Estimate of his character.

PREPARATION. Study of Lee's picture as seen in the text books, or on the walls of the schoolroom. Observance of Lee's birthday. General discussion of heroism, and traits of character worthy of admiration.

DEVELOPMENT

BIRTH AND PARENTAGE. Robert E. Lee was born on the 19th day of January, 1807, at Stratford, in Westmoreland County, Virginia. His father was General Henry Lee, a famous soldier in the Revolutionary War, sometimes called "Light-Horse Harry." When Robert was six years old his father was in bad health and went to the West Indies hoping to get well. But he grew worse instead of better and after five years started back home. He grew so ill in the voyage that he went ashore at Cumberland Island, Georgia, to visit Mrs. Greene, who was a friend of his. Two months later he died and was buried near Mrs. Greene's home.

INCIDENTS OF HIS BOYHOOD. Robert was now eleven years old, and was a great comfort and help to his mother. She once said to a friend: "How can I spare Robert? He is both son and daughter to me." At that time his sisters and brothers were away from home, and his mother was not very strong. So Robert would hurry from school to look after the house, and the outdoor work, and to go to ride with his mother in the old family coach. He grew up to be a strong, noble and good boy. He was very fond of hunting and riding. Sometimes he would ride all day following his hounds in a chase for a fox. This gave him strength and good health which he needed for the great work which was before him.

HIS EDUCATION AND CHARACTER AS A STUDENT. When Lee was eighteen years old he went to West Point to learn to be a soldier. For four years he studied very hard, obeyed all the rules and never received a bad mark or a single demerit. His uniform was always neat and his gun was kept bright and shining. At the end he came out second in his class. Shortly after he left West Point, his mother became very ill. He watched over her day and night but she failed very rapidly and died. Lee often said he owed everything to his mother.

HIS LIFE AS A YOUNG ENGINEER. Lee was now twenty-two years of age, and was in the Engineer Corps of the United States Army, with the title of Lieutenant. It was his duty to build forts, to control the currents of rivers, and to do other things that in time of peace would prepare the country for war. He was married about this time to Mary Custis. They took up their home at a fine old place on the Virginia side of the Potomac River, called Arlington.

Lieutenant Lee was a tall, erect and handsome soldier, of great dignity and courage. When he was thirty years old he was sent to St. Louis to keep the Mississippi River from overflowing its banks and making a new channel. This was a difficult undertaking, but he thought out a way and began work. While he was engaged in his task some persons tried to interfere and even threatened to fire on his workmen. But he stood his ground bravely and carried out his plans, which in the end were very successful.

HIS CAREER IN THE MEXICAN WAR. In 1846 the United States engaged in war with Mexico. Lee was still an engineer and was needed in this war to build bridges and roads, draw maps, plant the big guns and do many things necessary for the transportation and protection of the army. At first Lee was attached to the force under General Wool in the northern part of Mexico. The Mexican general was Santa Anna and General Wool was anxious to find out where he and his army were. So he sent Lee with only one man to guide him into the mountains to discover the whereabouts of the enemy. After riding several hours they saw the smoke of fires, and white objects which they thought were tents. Approaching very cautiously they found that the white objects were nothing but sheep and mules and wagons, and that the supposed enemy were nothing but a band of Mexicans on their way to market. Lee advanced boldly into their midst and demanded the information he was seeking. The Mexicans told him where Santa Anna was, and then

Lee rode back to his friends, who thought that they would never see him again. He had ridden forty miles in one night over the mountains, amid great danger, but he found out what he went for.

Lee was now sent to join General Scott in the south of Mexico at Vera Cruz. Here he had to build forts and plant the big guns, and arrange for the storming of that city. In two weeks time Vera Cruz was captured and General Scott moved to Cerro Gordo. Lee found a way to the rear of the Mexicans, who broke and fled on the approach of the Americans. From Cerro Gordo the army moved on to the great city of Mexico. While on the march, Lee was always in front with the men, building roads, finding paths and directing the movements of the troops and the guns. At one place General Scott sent seven of his engineers to find a way for the army across a bed of lava and rocks. Six of them came back and reported that it could not be done. But Lee, who was the seventh man, kept on alone and on foot in the dark and danger, and found a path by which the troops could cross. General Scott afterwards said that this was the greatest feat done by any one man during the war. After many battles the City of Mexico was captured, and peace was made by which the United States secured a large tract of territory in the West. Lee was then sent to be Superintendent of the Academy at West Point, where he had graduated twenty-three years before.

HIS OPINION OF HIS DUTY. After spending three years at West Point, Lee was made a Lieutenant-Colonel and sent out to Texas in charge of a troop of cavalry. His duty there was to watch the Indians and see that they did no injury to the white inhabitants. It was a very lonesome life to lead far away from his family, with no railroads, with intense heat at times, and no occupation except dealing with the treacherous savages. Colonel Lee spent several years in Texas. When Colonel Lee returned home a great war cloud was gathering over the entire country, for the North and the South were engaged in a bitter quarrel over slavery. In 1859 a man named John Brown formed a plan to free all the negroes from slavery, and to incite them to rise up and rebel against their owners. This was to be an insurrection of the slaves and was against the laws of the country. The plan failed, of course, for the negroes would not rise up as Brown expected. Colonel Lee was ordered to take soldiers and capture Brown and his followers. He went at once to Harper's Ferry in Virginia where Brown was, and captured him and his men. They were tried and hanged for treason. This incident is known as John Brown's Raid.

Shortly after this the differences between the North and the South became so great that the Southern States withdrew from the Union and set up a government of their own called "The Confederate States of America." This brought on the great war known as "The War between the States," which lasted four dreadful years. Lee was a colonel in the United States Army, but when Virginia left the Union he decided to go with his State and joined the Confederate Army. Before doing this he was offered the command of the Northern Army if he would only stay with the United States. To this he replied: "If I owned the four millions of slaves in the South, I would give them all up to save the Union, but how can I draw my sword upon Virginia, my native State?" So he sent in his resignation as Colonel in the United States Army, and was made Major-General of the Virginia troops in the Confederate army.

The war between the States, or the Civil War, as it is often called, now broke upon the country in all its fury, and we shall see that Lee bore a most conspicuous part in its history.

HIS CAREER IN THE WAR. The eleven Southern States that seceded from the Union formed a separate government, as we have already seen, known as "The Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi was elected President, and Richmond, Virginia, became the capital. Abraham Lincoln was President of the United States. Both sides called for volunteers and prepared for war. General Lee was at first engaged in Richmond in preparing troops for service and in sending them to stations where they were most needed. After a few months of that kind of work he was sent South to build a line of forts along the Georgia and Carolina coast. Here his skill as an engineer was of great service to the protection of the cities along the seaboard.

After the war had been in progress for about a year, a large Northern army, under General McClellan was sent against Richmond. The Confederate General, Joseph E. Johnston, was wounded in the great battle which followed, and General Lee was made Commander-in-Chief of all the Southern Army. The battles continued for seven days around Richmond, but in the end General McClellan had to withdraw his army and Richmond was safe for a time.

We need not follow General Lee's career in all the battles of the war. For four years he was in command of the Southern Army, and for a long time defeated all the leaders that the North sent against him. He had many able generals under him, such as Stonewall Jackson, Joseph E. Johnston, J. E. B. Stuart, and others who helped him carry out his plans.

At last the North sent out a great army under General Ulysses S. Grant to oppose the fast thinning lines of General Lee. The Southern Army had lost many soldiers in the hard-fought battles and there were no more men to take their places. Food and clothing were scarce, and ammunition was hard to obtain. This made the task of General Lee a most difficult one.

ROBERT E. LEE AND "STONEWALL" JACKSON

MU

Grant and Lee fought a number of battles in Virginia. Lee was gradually forced back upon Richmond by the overwhelming numbers of Grant, and by the steady, determined leadership of that splendid soldier. Grant pressed on in spite of heavy losses saying, "I will fight it out along this line if it takes all summer."

At length Lee's army was entirely surrounded at Lynchburg by Grant's larger forces, and Lee saw there was nothing to do but surrender. Accordingly, on April 9, 1865, he met Grant at Appomattox Court House and surrendered all that was left of his forces.

General Grant was a generous foe. He fed the hungry soldiers of Lee from his own stores, and allowed the men to take their horses home with them, saying they "would need them for the spring plowing." The soldiers of the Southern Army disbanded and returned to their homes, and the great war was over.

The Last Days of Lee. After the war General Lee became President of Washington College, in Lexington, Virginia. He was offered many other places but he chose this one as best suited to his desire to uplift the young men of the South. Here for five years he labored earnestly to build up a great school, and to instill into the hearts of the students the high ideals of manhood and citizenship. In 1870 his health began to fail, and in spite of a restful trip South he grew worse. He died October 12, 1870, and was buried in the college chapel.

The whole South mourned the loss of General Lee, and the entire nation did honor to his greatness as a man and a soldier.

Elements of His Character. General Lee was one of the great men of the country. We find his picture in all the histories of the war, and on the walls of many homes and schoolrooms in the South. He had many virtues that are worthy of imitation. He never used intoxicating liquors, or tobacco in any form. He never used profane language, but was always gentle and pure in his speech. He often said that *duty* is the sublimest word in the English language. More than any other trait of character to be admired is that Lee always did what he thought he ought to do.

Teaching Hints. Develop by conversation the pupils' ideas of what constitutes a great man and why. Dwell upon the misfortunes of war and the miseries it brings, and how wars can be avoided. Emphasize the fact that Lee was not great merely because he fought battles, but was great as a man who avoided fighting when he could do so. The real hero is he who does not seek the quarrel, but who will be brave when the occasion arises. Dwell upon Lee's devotion to his idea of Duty. Make a blackboard sentence to emphasize that fact. Exhibit pictures of Lee and illustrations of the incidents in which he was engaged.

Reference. *Life of Robert E. Lee.* Williamson.

TEST QUESTIONS

1. What constitutes a real knowledge of history?

2. What advantages has the story-telling method of teaching history?

3. Describe the proper manner of presenting a topic by means of story-telling.

4. Give in full a lesson plan on some episode in American history, suitable for a third grade.

5. Give an outline covering a week's lessons, assigned to a fourth grade, on the history of Plymouth Colony.

6. How would you present to a fourth-grade class biography lessons on Columbus? Washington? Daniel Boone?

7. How would you teach the essential facts of American history to a fifth-grade class without a text-book?

8. Suggest an effective way of reviewing a term's or a year's work.

9. How does the history work of the sixth grade differ from that of preceding grades?

10. What is meant by the topical method? What are its advantages?

11. How may the work in history be related to language work?

12. In presenting to a seventh-grade class the period from the Revolutionary War to the outbreak of the Civil War, how would you divide the work?

13. How would you develop the study of the Revolution?

14. What topics taken up in this period could be used as a basis for debates?

15. Outline the work for an eighth grade, beginning with the Civil War.

16. What would you consider the essential topics in a study of the Civil War?

17. Suggest appropriate literary readings to be used in connection with the period of the war.

18. What events following the war have had the most influence on the development of the nation?

PLANS FOR TEACHING HISTORY

FOURTH AND FIFTH YEARS

Note: The chapter on history was written by a most successful teacher of that subject, and embodies his life experience in the work. The suggestions and plans given us by Superintendent Evans are sound and practical, and the teacher who follows them will be sure to arouse and keep alive an interest in a subject which, because of poor methods of presentation, is often considered dry. The chapter should be thoroughly studied for its plan and spirit, and it should be frequently referred to as the work of the year progresses.

Systematic history is seldom taught in the fourth and fifth grades, although many history lessons are given during each of these years. They should be taught in connection with the work in geography, reading and language. These lessons should be as carefully prepared and presented, however, as they would be if they constituted lessons in a regular course in history. The lessons in these grades should touch upon the important facts only, leaving details until the subject is again taken up in the more advanced grades.

SEPTEMBER

The time devoted to history this month can well be occupied in the study of the Indians. (See the excellent outline on page 137 for these lessons; also the Type Study, *Iroquois Indians*, page 207 for the necessary material. Additional material will be found in Vol. III, page 52. Study picture *Penn's Treaty with the Indians*, Vol. II, page 424.)

The Indians' mode of life, the sort of dwellings they constructed, their manner of dress, their weapons and tools and household utensils, and their method of warfare will be of special interest. Pupils in these grades will not be interested in the number of tribes nor where each lived. Try in these lessons to show the human side of the Indian. (Study picture *Marriage of Pocahontas*, page 148.)

OCTOBER

Study the early life of Columbus (see page 138), and for material, the Type Study *Columbus*, page 196. The lessons should not extend beyond his return from his first voyage. Study picture *Columbus before the Court of Spain*, page 198.

NOVEMBER

Study the history of Thanksgiving. (See *Thanksgiving Day* in *Special Day Programs*, page 389. Also Type Study, *Puritans*, page 221.) The children have studied this subject before, so enough details can be added to enable them to conclude the study at this time. Trace the history of the festival down to the present time, showing how it gradually spread from the New England States to others until it became national in its scope. Call attention to the president's proclamation and to the proclamation of the governor of the state. Have the pupils understand that the governors of all states issue similar proclamations.

DECEMBER

Continue the study of the Pilgrims and Puritans, dwelling upon such characters as Miles Standish, Governor Bradford and John Alden. (See page 138.) Study picture *Departure of Pilgrims*, page 224. Emphasize the mode of life and hardships endured by these early settlers.

JANUARY

Study Peter Stuyvesant and the Dutch in New York. (See page 139; also *Knickerbocker Life in New York*, Vol. IV, page 212.)

FEBRUARY

The occurrence of Lincoln's and Washington's birthdays practically directs the work in history for the month. (See Type Study, *George Washington*, page 234; also *Lincoln* and *Washington* birthday programs in Chapter V, for material.) The story of Washington should not extend beyond his boyhood and youth. That of Lincoln may extend to his election to Congress. In each case later events should be reserved for more advanced grades.

MARCH

Study William Penn and his treatment of the Indians. Tell the pupils something about the Quakers and how they happened to come to America. (See page 139.) Speak of Philadelphia and the meaning of the name. Study the picture, *Penn's Treaty with the Indians*. For the picture and a sketch of the artist see Vol. II, page 424.

APRIL

Study John Eliot and his work among the Indians. (See page 144.) Follow the plan given there.

If time permits other type studies may follow. Robert Fulton and the invention of the steamboat; Eli Whitney and the cotton gin; Cyrus McCormick and the reaping machines are good types of lessons for the latter part of the year. In connection with Fulton see Vol. III, page 70. In connection with Whitney see Type Study, *Cotton*, Vol. VI, page 150.

MAY

Let the fifth grade study George Rogers Clark and the conquest of the Northwest. (See page 140.)

The fourth grade can study Daniel Boone on the same plan. (See Vol. III, page 58.)

The early life of Benjamin Franklin is of equal value, if it is preferred. (See Vol. III, page 63.)

JUNE

The story of Andrew Jackson up to the time he was elected president may be studied, provided the other work of this closing month will permit. (See page 273.)

Note: As much work as the course of study will usually permit in a year is provided for in the above plans. For the second year study in a similar manner James Oglethorpe; Francis Marion; Sir Walter Raleigh; Samuel Champlain and the early French explorations in America; the discovery of gold and the settlement of California; Thomas Jefferson and the purchase of Louisiana; the construction of the Erie Canal (see Type Study, *Erie Canal*, Vol. IV, page 415); the evolution of the American Flag (see Type Study, *The American Flag*, page 247), and the early history of the town and county in which the school is located.

SIXTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

The systematic study of history is usually begun in the sixth grade and a text-book is used. The first duty of the teacher is to become acquainted with the book and to determine to what extent it will hold the interest of the pupils. When this is understood the teacher knows what supplementary work will be necessary to supply needed information and keep the interest alive.

Study carefully *Outline for the Work of the Sixth Year* beginning on page 147. It is well to begin by using the text-book as a reader. Let the class read a few pages during the recitation and discuss the subject matter.

Begin with the early explorations; first, the Norsemen; second, Columbus. (See Type Study, page 196.) The study of Columbus should now be completed. The latter part of his life should receive the most attention.

Lead the class to see the condition of Europe at the time. Tell them of the attempts to reach India. Use maps and have the pupils trace the routes of Columbus, Vasco da Gama and other early explorers.

Make a thorough study of Columbus' first voyage, describing the ships, showing the preparation necessary and the difficulties of navigation at that time as compared with the present. Make this a type for the voyages of other early explorers.

OCTOBER

The Cabots, Vespucius, Balboa and Magellan should be studied after Columbus.

Make constant use of a map of the world and have the pupils trace the voyages of each explorer on it.

Pupils should be supplied with outline maps and trace upon them the voyages of explorers of different nationalities with different colored pencils or crayons. The same color should always represent the same nation, as yellow for Spain; red for Great Britain, and blue for France.

Complete the study of the Indians begun in the previous grades. Follow the outline given on page 137. (See Type Study, ***Iroquois Indians***, page 207.)

NOVEMBER

Take up early settlements; first, those made by Spaniards — Ponce de Leon, Cortez, Coronado, Narvaez, De Soto and Pizzaro. Call attention to the civilization found in Mexico and Peru, and the ruthless treatment of the natives by the Spaniards.

Second, those made by the French. Locate on the map the region explored and claimed by the French. Study the lives of Champlain, La Salle, Marquette and Joliet. (See *Jacques Marquette*, Vol. IV, page 204.)

Third, settlements made by the English. Note at this time only their location and the order in which they were settled.

Fourth, the Dutch settlements in and about New York. Study Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant and the Dutch manners and customs. (See *Knickerbocker Life in New York*, Vol. IV, page 212.)

DECEMBER

The Thirteen Colonies.

Begin with the study of Jamestown, since this was the oldest and it also is the best type of the southern colonies. Make use of the following outline:

- I. Conditions in England.
  - 1. London Company.
  - 2. Purpose of settling the colony.

II. The Settlers.
  1. Their character and purpose.
  2. Leaders — John Smith.
III. The Settlement.
  1. Conditions of the country.
  2. Reception by Indians.
  3. Inability and unwillingness to work.
  4. John Smith as leader.
  5. Troubles with Indians.
  6. Starving time.
  7. Marriage of Pocahontas.
IV. Growth of the colony.
  1. Change of charter.
  2. Allotment of land.
  3. Industry and prosperity.
  4. Introduction of women.
  5. Introduction of slaves.
  6. First House of Burgesses.
  7. Bacon's Rebellion.

This study should give the class a clear idea of the Southern Colonies, and the others will need but little time.

JANUARY

Make a study of the New England Colonies — Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay — using a similar plan. In connection with these the settlements in Connecticut and Rhode Island should be noted.

Compare the settlers in the New England Colonies with those in Virginia — their purpose in coming to America, their mode of life and their system of government. (See pages 149, 153.)

Massachusetts and Virginia represent the two great types of Englishmen who settled America. If they are studied carefully the other colonies will demand but little time.

FEBRUARY

Indian troubles and the Intercolonial Wars should follow the study of the colonies, though the pupils should understand that these movements often went on together. The European cause of these wars cannot be understood by pupils in this grade and but little time should be devoted to this phase of the subject. The causes which should be emphasized are injustice to the Indians and the conflicting claims of the French and English to territory.

Have the pupils mark on their outline maps the boundaries of French and English territory and locate the territory in dispute.

It is important that the class understand the different treatment the Indians received at the hands of the English and the French, and the great influence which the French exerted over the Indians. Lead them to see why the Iroquois joined the English and all the other Indians north of the Ohio River joined the French in the final conflict.

MARCH

The first wars — King Philip's, King William's, Queen Anne's, etc. — should receive just enough attention to show their local effect. Most of the time should be devoted to the French and Indian Wars.

APRIL

The campaigns of the French and Indian Wars requiring special attention are Braddock's campaign, the campaigns against Ticonderoga and the campaign against Quebec. Make this a type study, and call attention to the present condition of Quebec and the fact that the Canadian Government has made the battlefield a national park. Conclude the study by having the pupils reconstruct the map of North America according to the terms of the treaty which terminated the war.

MAY and JUNE

The study for these months should be upon the growth and development of the English colonies. The classes of people found in the different colonies, their occupations, the various lines of industries carried on, modes of travel, commerce, religious belief, social customs, education, etc., should be dwelt upon as fully as time will permit. (See *The Topical Method*, page 153.)

SEVENTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

The work in the sixth grade leads up to the Revolutionary War. In the study of this war place the greatest emphasis upon the causes and results.

The Causes. The study of the colonies with which we closed the sixth year gave the class a good idea of their condition in America, but they gave little or no attention to the relation of the colonies to the mother country. This relation should now receive attention.

What were the purposes of the colonists in coming to America?

What restrictions did England place upon the colonies?

What forms of government were in operation in the colonies before the war?

OCTOBER

What were the Navigation Acts?

What did the French and Indian Wars have to do in bringing on the Revolution?

In answering these questions lead the pupils to study both sides, make comparisons and draw conclusions.

What did the colonies do to irritate Parliament? Lead the pupils to see that the wrong was not all on one side.

NOVEMBER

The Stamp Act and its consequences.

The first Colonial congress.

Boston Massacre, Quebec Act and Minutemen. Concord and Lexington. (See page 155.)

Study the Battle of Bunker Hill. Read Holmes' poem, ***Grandmother's Story of the Battle of Bunker Hill.***

DECEMBER

Touch upon the main incidents of the Revolution only — Continental Congress, selection of Washington as Commander-in-chief, Declaration of Independence. Make a type study of one campaign; Burgoyne's is the most suitable. (See Type Study, ***On Comparisons in Burgoyne's Invasion***, page 257.)

Washington's movements around New York and Philadelphia, Valley Forge, the campaigns in the South, with special attention to the Battle of King's Mountain, and the campaign against Cornwallis are all the military movements that need special attention.

Arnold's treason, the financial difficulties of the country and the heroism of the women during the war, together with the study of Washington, Lafayette, Nathan Hale, Sargent Jasper, Nathanael Greene and other leading characters should receive attention as events lead to them.

JANUARY

Begin the study of the period of development. (See page 157.) Many of the subjects will be difficult for the pupils to comprehend, and they will require a great deal of explanation. If the teacher has access to John Fiske's *Critical Period in American History*, she will find in it much valuable information, but the book is too difficult for the pupils.

Review the condition of the country at the close of the war. What was Continental money? Why was it considered worthless? What was the attitude of the states towards each other? What was England's attitude towards the United States? Why was a new constitution necessary?

These topics lead naturally to the study of the Constitutional Convention and the adoption of that instrument by the country. (See *Civil Government*, page 317.)

The election of Washington as president and the organization of the new government should next claim attention. Study picture *Washington Delivering Inaugural Address*, page 246. Place special emphasis upon Hamilton's financial measures because they redeemed the country from bankruptcy. Touch upon the trouble with foreign countries, and Washington's attitude concerning foreign relations.

FEBRUARY

A brief discussion of political parties will be necessary. The presentation of the Constitution for adoption caused the formation of two parties, one favoring the adoption, the other opposing it. Those favoring the Constitution took the name *Federalists*, and their opponents were termed *Anti-Federalists*, which name was later changed to *Republicans*. The Federalists favored a strong national government; the Republicans favored strong state governments and thought that the Constitution conferred too much power on the National or Federal government. Try to make these distinctions clear to the class.

Jefferson's Administration. Note the change in policy when the Republicans came into power.

Study the Louisiana Purchase. (See Type Study on page 262.) What states have been formed from the territory acquired?

The war with the Barbary States and the Embargo Act should be noticed.

MARCH

Study the War of 1812, noting the causes, the most important engagements on land and sea, and the results. The class will learn the story of *The Star Spangled Banner*, and they should learn the poem.

APRIL

Review the condition of the country at the close of the War of 1812, noting the growth in population, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. Note the influence of the cotton gin upon the development of the South and that of the steamboat in extending commerce to the interior of the country.

Explain the *Monroe Doctrine*. The class will get some idea of it though they cannot fully comprehend its scope. Explain the *Missouri Compromise* and its effect. Use a map and locate the slave and the free states. Lead the pupils to see why it was natural for the inhabitants of each section to favor their own industrial system.

MAY

Jackson's Administration should receive special attention because of the political changes it wrought. (See Type Study, ***Andrew Jackson***, page 273.)

The Mexican War — its causes, campaigns and results — should occupy the remainder of the month, ending with a study of the growth of territory since the United States became a nation. (See Map, page 160.)

JUNE

Study the introduction of railroads; the construction of canals (see Type Study, *Erie Canal*, Vol. IV, page 415); the growth of cities; the invention of the telegraph; the opening of the West; the discovery of gold in California and its influence upon the country. Show how all these contrived to widen the breach between the North and the South. Show how the break was avoided at this time by the great compromise measure known as the *Omnibus Bill*.

EIGHTH YEAR

SEPTEMBER

Causes leading to the Civil War.

Review briefly the development of the country from the War of 1812 to 1860. Emphasize the different industrial systems in the North and the South, and show how they led to the different social systems of the respective sections. Show that at one time slaves were held in all states; they were gradually given their freedom in the North because they were not profitable in those states.

Show that the ideas of government set forth by the first two political parties were still held. The idea of "states' rights," or strong state government prevailed in the South, and that of strong National government prevailed in the North. (See page 159.)

Study the debate between Webster and Hayne, the attempt at nullification by South Carolina, the Wilmot Proviso and the Dred Scott Case.

OCTOBER

Study briefly the great debates between Lincoln and Douglas in Illinois, the settlement of Kansas and the election of Lincoln. Study picture *Lincoln and His Cabinet*, page 162. Let the pupils take outline maps and write on each the name of the presidential candidate who carried the state. This will show graphically how the country was divided.

Secession of South Carolina and firing upon Fort Sumter and its effects.

Secession of the other states and organization of the government of the Confederate States. Use the same outline maps and have the pupils mark upon them the states that withdrew from the Union. Note briefly the attempts at reconciliation.

NOVEMBER

The Battle of Manassas, or Bull Run, and its effects. With this battle the war was begun in earnest.

Use the outline maps and mark upon them the plan of campaign marked out by the Union government. Follow the great movements, noting only the most important engagements — the Peninsula Campaign, Shiloh, Donaldson, the opening of the Mississippi, including the capture of New Orleans.

The Emancipation Proclamation.

War on the Ocean. The *Monitor and Merrimac*; the *Alabama*, and the attempts to blocade all Southern ports.

DECEMBER

Chancellorsville; Fredericksburg; Gettysburg, which should be made a type study; the fall of Vicksburg; Chattanooga; Grant's campaign around Richmond; Sherman's march through the South, and Appomatox should conclude the military studies. Make constant use of the map in these lessons. (See *Civil War Tree*, page 164.)

Among the great commanders, a special study should be made of Grant, Sherman, Sheridan and Thomas on the Federal side, and Lee, A. S. Johnston and Stonewall Jackson on the Confederate side. Study picture *Lee and Jackson*, page 182. Farragut and Porter were the most noted naval commanders.

JANUARY

Effects of the War. First upon the people, showing remarkable instances of heroism and sacrifice.

Second upon the country. Industrial and financial condition of the North; devastated condition of the South. (See *The Southern Soldier*, Lee Day Program, page 429.)

The statesmen of the period, whose lives should be studied, are Lincoln, Seward, Edwin M. Stanton, Charles Sumner and Thaddeus Stevens in the North; Jefferson Davis, Judah P. Benjamin, Robert Thoombs and Alexander H. Stephens in the South.

Lincoln's assassination and its effect.

FEBRUARY

The period of reunion.

The complex political situation following the War is not easily understood, and only the main features should be touched upon. These include the plan adopted by Congress for restoring the seceded states to the Union, and the XIV and XV amendments to the constitution.

The purchase of Alaska. Note the opposition to the purchase at the time, and the present state of development of the territorv together with the value of the products exported.

The Centennial Exposition and condition of the country at the close of our first century of independence.

Extent of territory; population; wealth; completion of the first Pacific railroad; the tide of emigration wending its way westward. Study picture *Wagons Crossing the Plains*; influence of great American inventions — cotton gin, steamboat, telegraph, sewing machine, telephone, reaping machine and other agricultural machinery. Opening of the West. The Homestead Act, etc.

MARCH

The War with Spain and its results. Make a study of Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands in connection with this topic; also the present status and condition of Cuba.

APRIL

Continue the study of our national development, locating our great national resources — coal, iron ore, granite, marble, copper, forests, water power, etc.

Study the conservation movement; the irrigation projects. (See Type Study, *Irrigation*, Vol. VI, page 176.)

The World's Columbian Exposition in 1893 and the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904 and the Panama Pacific Exposition 1915 should also have one or two lessons devoted to them.

Study the life of Thomas A. Edison and his valuable inventions, especially the electric light and the phonograph. Also note the many applications of electricity to industry.

MAY

The United States as a world power.

The Panama Canal and its advantages. (See Type Study, *Panama Canal*, Vol. IV, page 403.)

Rank of the United States with other great nations in area, population, manufactures, agriculture, commerce and wealth.

The organization of industries on large plans, as the steel industry; the manufacture of agricultural implements, etc.

Our educational system, including the public schools and leading colleges, universities and professional schools should receive attention.

JUNE

Review the work of the seventh and eighth years by topic so as to show the relation of each period of our history to the others. Only the leading facts can be touched upon in this review and it should be conducted on the plan of cause and effect.

TYPE STUDIES IN HISTORY

CHARLES A. McMURRY, PH.D.

COLUMBUS

Suggestions as to Method

(a) This is an historical topic which is geographic in its whole setting and purpose.

(b) Study maps which show the actual knowledge of the world possessed by scholars before the first voyage of Columbus. A map of the world as well known at the time is pretty small. Most of the world still lay in the unknown.

(c) Notice in the reference books the superstitions commonly prevailing among people about the unknown regions of the earth.

(d) Make a study of the old routes to India via Arabia and along the Tigris and Euphrates. Also the products brought from eastern lands.

(e) Review the story of the Crusades and the story of Alexander the Great.

(f) The world map is necessary in the story of Magellan and later navigators.

(g) Collect pictures of the vessels of Columbus and Magellan and compare them in size with great steamships of our time.

Outline of Topics

1. His aim.
2. His first voyage.
3. Later voyages of Columbus.
4. Vasco da Gama. Americus Vespucius.
5. Magellan's voyage.
6. Search for the Northwest Passage.
7. Suez and Panama canals.

1. When Columbus was born at Genoa in 1436, a spirit of great unrest had arisen among the sea-faring nations of Europe. Marco Polo had returned from his wonderful journey to China, or Cathay, as it was then called, and told of the wealth of spices, silks and precious stones found there and in Japan, or Cipango. Some adventurous mariners had been carried in Chinese ships from the Persian Gulf to Cathay, and now the desire among all mariners was to find a short way to these lands of wealth and wonder.

Columbus at the age of fourteen entered upon a sea-faring life and made several voyages, mostly in merchant ships in the Mediterranean. When not at sea, he made maps and charts in Genoa, as there was a great demand for work of that kind. In 1470 he followed his brother, Bartholomew, who was also a sea-faring man, to Lisbon. Prince Henry of Portugal was greatly interested in navigation and discovery, and Lisbon had become the center of nautical science. When Diaz, a Portuguese navigator, sailed around The Cape of Good Hope, Bartholomew was with him. The fears of his men caused Diaz to turn back before he reached the Indian Ocean, or a water-way to the famed Indies might then have been discovered.

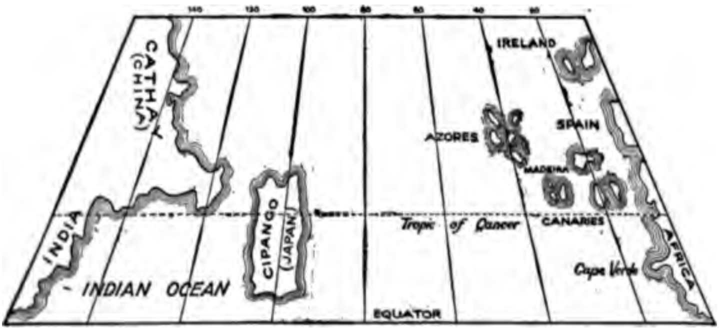
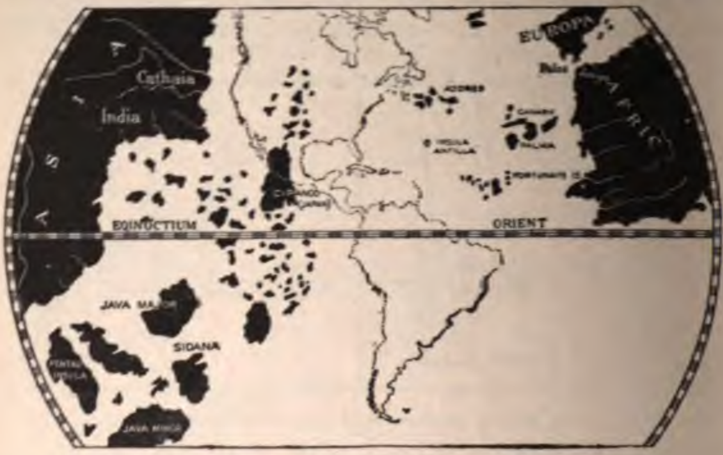


CHART SENT BY TOSCANELLI TO COLUMBUS IN 1474

Soon after reaching Portugal, Columbus married the daughter of a navigator. On the island home of his father-in-law, he continued his nautical studies. Like some other students of the time he became convinced that a short route to Cathay might be found by sailing westward. He wrote to Toscanelli, the great astronomer and geographer, who agreed with him in thinking that the land of "gold, pearls and precious stones" could be reached by sailing westward.

From many other sources Columbus found proofs of the correctness of his views concerning the earth's shape. After the war with Castile was ended he asked the King of Portugal for aid, but as his scheme was pronounced visionary by a body of learned scholars, King John refused to consider it. Columbus went to Spain, but Ferdinand and Isabella, although interested in the project, were unable to provide the money necessary to carry it out. Through his brother, he appealed to Henry VII of England, but was unsuccessful here as elsewhere. France also refused aid.

In the spring of 1491, Columbus, utterly discouraged, decided to leave Spain. With his young son he had proceeded as far as the Franciscan convent of la Rabida, where he stopped for refreshment. The prior, Juan Perez, became greatly interested in his story. This prior had been the queen's confessor, and he sent her a letter which brought an invitation to him and Columbus to visit the court. Here a company of learned men passed favorable judgment upon his plans, and when Granada surrendered in 1492, the queen promised him the necessary aid to carry them out.



BEHAIM'S MAP OF 1492

Black portions are continents then known to exist. Dotted lines show the undiscovered Americas

2. In August, 1492, Columbus sailed from Palos, Spain, with three small caravels, the *Santa Maria*, the *Pinta* and

COLUMBUS BEFORE THE COURT OF SPAIN

MU

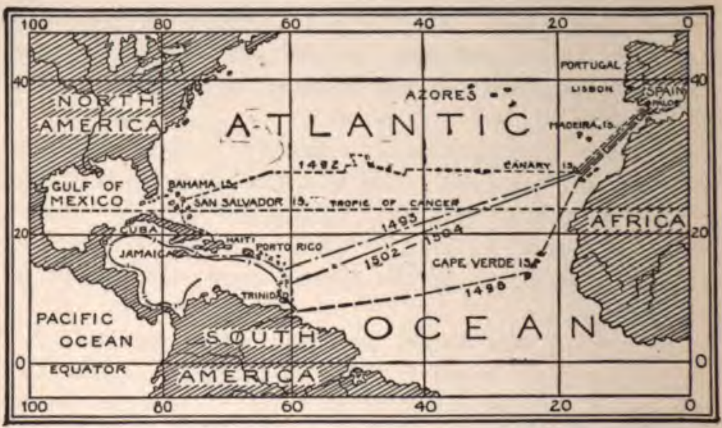
the *Nina*. His crew was made up of ninety men, many of them going under protest, as they had no faith in the undertaking. He ran south about forty-five miles and stood for the Canaries. Following Toscanelli's map, Columbus was aiming for the northern coast of Cipango.

For two months these tiny vessels pushed westward. The sailors were afraid as the distance from Spain increased. The Sargasso Sea, a vast body of vegetation growing on water some two thousand feet deep, increased their fears. The trade winds which carried them rapidly westward might prevent their return. They begged Columbus to carry them home, but he insisted upon pushing on. Finally signs of land were seen, and on the morning of October 12, land was sighted.

Columbus with part of his company went ashore. The landscape was beautiful. This was, doubtless, Cipango, and all were wild with joy at reaching the country sought. Visions of great fortunes delighted them. The officers embraced Columbus and the sailors begged his pardon for doubting him.

The natives were unlike any people the Spaniards had seen. They were brown in color and naked. There were no signs of the great wealth expected in Cipango except the trinkets of gold worn by the natives. When asked where they found the gold they pointed southward. Columbus decided that he had landed on an island north of Cipango. He had heard of the many islands in the Indian sea. This was one of them, and the natives were, therefore, Indians. He took possession in the name of Castile and named the island San Salvador. It was one of the Bahamas, but which one cannot be determined.

After cruising among the Bahamas for about ten days, Columbus was convinced that he was east of Cathay. He decided to proceed to Cipango and thence to Cathay. Sailing southward he reached Cuba. The tropical climate, the beautiful scenery, and the pearl oysters along the coast corresponded to the descriptions of Marco Polo, but no great cities could be found. From Cuba he sailed to Hayti and called it Hispaniola. Here one of his ships was wrecked and he decided to return to Spain. Pinzon, who commanded the *Nina*, had deserted, and the *Pinta* was too small to carry all the men. As many of the men were pleased with the country, the climate and the natives, a colony was planned. A blockhouse was built of the wreck of the *Santa Maria*, and forty men with provisions for one year were left in charge. The colony was named La Navidad.



ROUTES OF COLUMBUS IN HIS VARIOUS VOYAGES

The return voyage was stormy, and it was March before Columbus reached Palos. Great honors were showered upon the returned wanderer. The specimens of gold and pearls that he brought back convinced all that a country of great wealth had been discovered. There was little doubt that the island now known as Cuba was the eastern extremity of Cathay, and Hispaniola was the northern part of Cipango. A short route had been found to these famed lands, and it was easy to get money for another voyage.

3. In September Columbus sailed with seventeen ships and 1,500 men. All sorts of animals—horses, mules and cattle—were put on board, also vines, sugar cane, and various

seeds. Many adventurous young men of the nobility joined the party, interested in the wealth of the Indies. At the Canaries, goats, sheep, pigs, fowls, seeds of oranges and lemons were added to the cargo. The new colonies were to be well provided for. On the third of November they saw a small island which they named Dominica. Later they stopped at an island which they called Porto Rico. It was the twenty-seventh of November when they reached La Navidad, the colony left on Hispaniola. The fort and its occupants had disappeared. No traces of the missing men were ever discovered.

A new colony was founded, and named San Domingo. Twelve ships were sent back for supplies. Columbus, with 400 men, explored the interior. No cities were found, but many signs of gold mines encouraged the explorers.

In April Columbus left the colony with three caravels to explore the coast. He went to Cuba, which he supposed was the Asiatic coast. Before following the coast he thought it better to go south, as the natives, when asked about gold, always pointed south. He found an island still called by the native name of Jamaica. The Indians here were the most intelligent he had seen. Turning north again he followed the Cuban coast for some distance, but no cities were found and his crew insisted upon returning to Hispaniola.

Columbus was worn out with fatigue and excitement. The colonists were discontented and mutinous. After more than a year of hard work in an attempt to bring affairs to order he returned in 1496 to Spain. He was kindly received by the queen, and in the spring of 1498 he started upon his third voyage. He was provided with six ships and 200 passengers. He sent three ships direct to Hispaniola, and with the others he sailed southwest, intending to reach Cathay at a more southerly point. In July he was five degrees from the equator, and was for a time becalmed. Fortunately the equatorial current carried the ships slowly to the zone of trade winds and in about ten days land was sighted. It was an island with three mountains, and Columbus called it Trinidad. He sailed around it and entered a gulf where he was almost overwhelmed by the rush of waters from a great river. This river was the Orinoco. If this was a continuation of the coast of Cuba or Cathay, as he supposed, it probably was separated from the northern parts by a strait which led into the Indian Ocean. He turned north to find this strait.

As he sailed around the Pearl Coast he was mightily pleased with the beautiful pearls found there. This was more like the Cathay he was looking for, and he doubtless would have been disappointed if he had realized that he had discovered a new continent. He was suffering with gout and his eyes were exhausted with watching coast lines. He thought it best to return to Hispaniola.

San Domingo was reached in August. Here an insurrection had taken place. This was hardly suppressed when a new governor was sent out to take charge if things were not satisfactory. He promptly put Columbus and his brother in chains and sent them to Spain. Isabella was much grieved over the treatment Columbus had received, and promised recompense for his losses and invited him to undertake another voyage. In May, 1502, he sailed with four small caravels and 150 men.

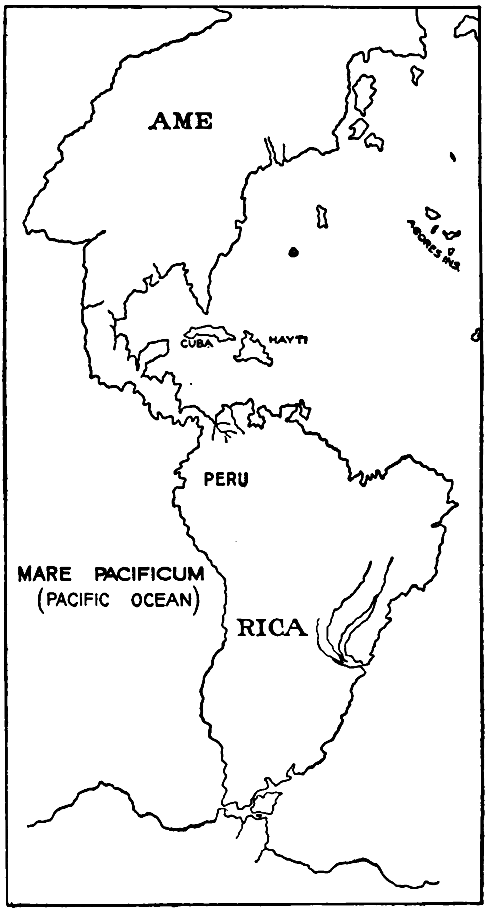
Following the route of his second voyage he passed near Dominica and steered for Jamaica. He wished to avoid San Domingo, as his enemies were still in possession of that place. However, one of his ships was disabled and he stopped at San Domingo to replace it. He was refused entrance to the harbor. As his practiced eyes had seen signs of an approaching storm, he begged permission to stay in the harbor and advised the commander of a fleet of twenty ships on their way to Spain, laden with gold, to remain until the storm was past. His request was not granted nor his advice taken. While he found shelter from the hurricane which swept the island in a smaller harbor, the fleet was almost destroyed. Only one vessel reached Spain and that contained 4,000 pieces of gold intended for Columbus.

Pushing on after the storm, he sailed in a southwesterly direction and in a short time reached Honduras. Now it seemed that Cathay had been reached, for here he found a semi-civilized people who wore cotton clothes of beautiful color and texture, who had copper knives and hatchets, and handsome gold ornaments, and artistic pottery. They lived in great houses of stone and lime, whose walls were decorated with carvings and pictures. Columbus sailed southward along the coast to find a passage to the great sea to the west which the natives told him about. They spoke of a narrow place and Columbus thought it was water. They doubtless meant the Isthmus of Darien.

At the beginning of December no strait was found, but Columbus decided to make a settlement as a base for the working of gold mines in the neighborhood. Three months of suffering followed, as supplies were short and the natives hostile. It was necessary to sail for home. At Jamaica the ships were wrecked. Two men were sent to San Domingo for aid while Columbus and his crew built a rude fortress from the wrecked vessels. It was almost a year before his enemies sent for him. Worn out with his sufferings he sailed for Spain as soon as possible. Nineteen days after he reached Seville his best friend, Queen Isabella, died. The government made no effort to aid him in carrying on his explorations. He retired to Valladolid, where he died in extreme poverty in 1506. He died without knowing that he had discovered a new continent, and disappointed that he had not found the water-way to the Indies.

4. In 1497 a Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama, following the path of Diaz around Africa, reached Cathay or China. When he returned in 1499 he brought a cargo of spices, rare silks and precious jewels. Portugal had accomplished what Spain had tried in vain to do, and as yet the great work done by Columbus was not apparent.

Other voyagers tried to carry out Columbus' plan of reaching the Indian Ocean by sailing westward. A Florentine navigator, Americus Vespucius, made several voyages in the period between 1497 and 1507. He explored much of the coast of South America and that of North America as far north as Florida. As no passage to the ocean beyond was found it became evident that a new country had been discovered. As he was the first to make this clear to the learned men of Europe, his name was given to the new continent.



MAP MADE SOON AFTER 1500

Showing rapid increase in knowledge of world geography after the voyages of Columbus

5. What Columbus tried to do was accomplished later by a daring navigator named Magellan. As a young man he had been in India with the Portuguese viceroy, for Portugal claimed India after Da Gama's voyage. He returned home in 1512 and devoted much time to the study of navigation. It seemed to him that it would be possible to reach India by a westward route, and he presented his plan to the king of Portugal, who was not

interested. As the Spaniards were not permitted by the Portuguese to use the route by way of Good Hope, an opening to the west was desirable. So the king of Spain, when Magellan appealed to him, provided five small ships and a motley crew made up of many nations. They sailed in September, 1519.

In spite of storms, leaky ships and poor food, Magellan pushed across the ocean to the coast of Brazil. Following the coast southward he reached the La Plata River which he explored far enough to find it was not a strait. It was now January, 1520, but he pushed on to the south until the weather became so cold that he was compelled to stop in a sheltered port at St. Julien. Here a mutiny broke out, but it was skilfully quelled by this masterful leader. It was August before the journey was continued. In October he reached the strait now known as Magellan, and sailing through it entered the mighty ocean which he called Pacific because it seemed so peaceful after the storms through which they had passed. Then began a voyage across its broad waters unequalled in daring and suffering. It was March, 1521, when he arrived at the Philippine Islands, and Magellan learned with joy that the Moluccas were but a short distance to the south. He was now in known waters and hoped soon to be with his friends. The Philippines were claimed for Spain and remained a Spanish possession until some four hundred years later, when they were turned over to the United States. A short stop was made upon the island, and in a skirmish with the natives Magellan was killed. His ships sailed on through the Indian Ocean and around the coast of Africa to Spain, and completed the first circumnavigation of the globe.

6. Magellan completed the purpose of Columbus by reaching the East Indies from Europe by sailing westward. Later explorers like d'Ayllon and Henry Hudson tried to find a westward passage to the Pacific through North America. The northwest passage around North America was finally discovered by Sir Robert McClure in 1854, but it proved of no value for shipping.

During the century that followed Columbus, the great continents of North and South America were definitely located, and it became evident that there was no good sea-going passage to the Pacific from the Atlantic. For a long time the route from Europe around southern Africa was the best.

7. The old problem of a shorter passage to the Indies was still unsolved and was now taken up by the engineers and canal-builders. If no ocean passage could be found, perhaps one could be made through the isthmuses. During the last century skilful engineers have worked out the problem that puzzled Columbus and other navigators. In 1869, a canal was completed through the Isthmus of Suez, connecting the Mediterranean and Red Seas, and reducing the distance between Europe and the far East by about 5,000 miles. In 1881 the successful engineer De Lesseps, who built the Suez Canal, began the project of a canal through the Isthmus of Panama. Too many difficulties were met here, and the plan was given up by the French, who were supporting it. The government of the United States bought up the rights of the French and began the construction of the canal, which was opened to traffic in the summer of 1914. This shortens the distance between New York and San Francisco by nearly 8,000 miles, and that between New York and the Pacific ports of South America by over 4,000 miles.

It has required more than four hundred years of exploration and commercial development to work out to final completion the purpose with which Columbus started out on his famous voyage in 1492.

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2. Type Study on the Iroquois Indians

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) A full appreciation of the Iroquois and of their activities in war requires a geographical survey of a large part of the United States, especially of the regions east of the Mississippi River, the Great Lakes and Canada.

(*b*) A good historical map of the various Indian tribes shown in different colors is desirable, and the children should be drilled upon the main groupings of tribes, with definite relation to our present divisions into states.

(*c*) One of the best map studies in connection with Iroquois history is to show how the Iroquois war-parties could start from central New York and follow the streams in all directions in their canoe journeys, e. g. down the Susquehanna, Delaware and Allegheny, or along the Great Lakes and their tributary streams westward, or down the St. Lawrence eastward, or along the Mohawk and Lake Champlain to the east and north.

(*d*) A collection of pictures of Indian houses, dress, war dances, hunting parties and battles can be made. When museums can be visited, as the Field Museum in Chicago, or collections of Indian relics can be seen, they will greatly aid the concrete and realistic comprehension of Indian life.

(*e*) We have numerous books and stories of the long conflict between the whites and the Indians, of adventure and bold exploits, which can be read in suitable references. They are also well illustrated with maps and pictures.

Outline of Topics

1. The Five Nations and their location in Central New York; their early history.
2. Their relation to Champlain, the French and Algonquins.
3. Their dealings with the Dutch.
4. Their home life and tribal organization.
5. Their conquests, north, east, south and west.
6. French and English influences
7. Their connection with the French and Indian War, and with the Revolution.
8. Their leaders.
9. Comparison with other Indians.
10. Conclusion and summary.

IROQUOIS INDIANS

1. The Iroquois Indians, the craftiest, the most daring, and the most intelligent of all the barbarous tribes in North America, lived in New York State. Their territory extended from Lake Erie to the Hudson River, and was bounded on the north by Lake Ontario and the upper St. Lawrence. To the south it reached Chesapeake Bay. This was a commanding position, as it controlled the waterways of the Great Lakes, the Hudson River, and through the Susquehanna and the Allegheny rivers, the country to the south. It was easy for war parties, with the light canoes which could be carried over portages, to reach, quietly and secretly, far-distant places, and no enemy was safe from these bold warriors.

TYPE OF AMERICAN INDIAN

2. The Iroquois traditions say that they once controlled the whole of the St. Lawrence River. The great village of Hochelaga which Cartier found where Montreal now stands, when he explored the St. Lawrence in 1535, was theirs. The Algonquin Indians, their ancient enemy, drove them from the St. Lawrence to the south and west. Through the influence of a great chieftain, Hiawatha, the tribes south of Lake Ontario formed a confederacy of five tribes—the Mohawks, the Oneidas. the Onondagas, the Cayugas and the Senecas. The French gave them the name Iroquois.

They called themselves an Indian term which meant "Men of the Long House," from their peculiar style of house or wigwam. The early settlers spoke of them as the Five Nations.

There were other tribes of Iroquois which declined entering the confederacy. The Hurons, on Lake Huron; the Eries, south of Lake Erie; the Andastes or Conestagas, in the valley of the Susquehanna; and the Cherokees and Tuscaroras of Tennessee and Carolina, though of kindred blood, were looked upon as enemies by the haughty tribes of the Five Nations and were in time either exterminated by them or adopted into their tribes. In the early part of the eighteenth century the Tuscaroras, defeated by their white neighbors, came north and were adopted as a nation by their Iroquois kindred. From that time on the confederacy was known as the Six Nations.

When the French came to settle the country of the St. Lawrence, they found the Algonquin Indians along its banks. They soon made friends of their neighbors. Their attempts to carry on a trade in furs with the Indians in the far west were not very successful because the traders were so often beset by prowling bands of Iroquois. When in 1609 Champlain was invited to join a war party of Algonquins and Hurons against their common enemy, it seemed to him a fine chance to explore the country to the south with protection from the troublesome Iroquois. With the Indians he proceeded up the Richelieu River to the Iroquois Lake which now bears his name, and in the neighborhood of Ticonderoga they came upon a war party of their enemy. The Iroquois threw up a barricade and waited for the attack. The Indian allies rushed boldly to the enemy, but were repulsed and ran back howling for help from Champlain and the two Frenchmen who were with him. The Iroquois, who had sallied forth after the retreating foe, were amazed to see three white men clad in shining armor advancing toward them. When Champlain raised his arquebus and killed three warriors, the unusual experience was too much for the bold Mohawks and they turned and fled. The Algonquins took many prisoners.

In spite of Champlain's protest many were put to torture. This affront to the Men of the Long House was never forgiven, and the French this day made an enemy that placed a barrier between them and the country to the south which they hoped to possess.

3. It was in the summer of 1609 that Hendrick Hudson sailed up the Hudson River. Later the Dutch settled the New Netherlands, and soon after, Dutch traders were changing with the Five Nations blue beads and red cloth for skins of beaver, mink and otter. As the settlers increased in number and pushed up the Hudson, the principal chiefs of the Five Nations were invited to Fort Nassau and a solemn treaty was made by which the Dutch agreed to supply the Indians with guns and ammunition in exchange for peltries. From this time on the Iroquois were more or less steadfast friends of the Dutch and later transferred their friendship to the English when New Amsterdam became New York. This treaty was made in 1618.

4. The strength of the Iroquois depended not only upon their favorable location and their native intelligence, energy and ambition, but also upon their plan of government. Each tribe had its own laws and its own sachems or principal chieftains who were helped by numerous subordinate chiefs and principal men. But when matters of general importance came before them, they were looked after by an assembly of the chiefs of all the tribes. The general assembly was held at a great council house in the valley of Onondaga which was centrally located, and then Hiawatha and the other great chieftain who helped him to carry out his plans belonged to the Onondaga tribe. At this council house ambassadors from other tribes, or from the white men, were received, alliances were made, and all subjects of general interest talked over. Here their orators, who were held in great esteem, often had much influence in deciding important matters. If anyone rose to speak, all others kept profound silence.

Besides the tribal divisions there was a family or clan organization. The emblem of each clan was some animal, as wolf, turtle or bear. There were eight of these families, and they were scattered among all the tribes. This was a great help in preserving unity among the tribes, for each member was bound to aid all others of his own clan.

The Five Nations were not migratory like many other savages. They possessed walled towns which were surrounded by cultivated fields where they grew corn, pumpkins and beans. Their houses were often one hundred feet long and perhaps fifteen or seventeen feet wide. They were built of poles covered with bark. Through the center was a passageway about six feet wide, and at intervals were stone fireplaces, one for each family. Above each fireplace there was an opening in the roof to let out the smoke. On each side of the passageway bunks or stalls were built. Here, upon piles of skins, the families slept. There was a door at each end of the passage, hung with skins to keep out the cold. As many as twenty families lived in such a house.

AN IROQUOIS LONG HOUSE

In the winter the Indians would sit or lie around the fires, joking and laughing, or perhaps listening to Iroquois legends told by some old orator. Over the fires would be cooking kettles of corn and beans, wild game, or on great occasions, dog meat, and the long house would be filled with the smoke of the fires and tobacco.

Perhaps some warrior would call together a war party, for any warrior had that privilege, and a number would desert the house, and joining some of their neighbors would steal silently through the woods to surprise some unsuspecting enemy. If prisoners were taken they were brought to the village, and in the open square—the long houses were built about a square—awful scenes of cruelty would be seen. The

Iroquois, though more intelligent than other Indians, were not less ferocious. They showed great ingenuity in methods of torture. Men, women and children enjoyed to the utmost the suffering of victims whom they mutilated and burned at the stake, prolonging life as long as possible that the agony might be greater. Then they would cut the bodies of the slain to pieces and often eat them before the surviving prisoners. All prisoners, however, were not put to death, for sometimes, sated with torturing, different members of the tribe would offer to adopt prisoners to take the places of those of their own number who had been slain in battle. In this way they kept up their numbers, for repeated forays cost many lives.

The Men of the Long House were strong and well built. Their faces were hard and stern, for they were taught from childhood to repress all emotions. They were proud and extremely self-reliant. Their self-satisfaction made them unwilling to imitate and so they were hard to educate. They were ambitious and revengeful, treacherous and suspicious. Though brave, they avoided open battle, preferring to fight from ambush. And these tribes who for so many centuries were the terror of their enemies, both Indian and white, never numbered more than four thousand warriors.

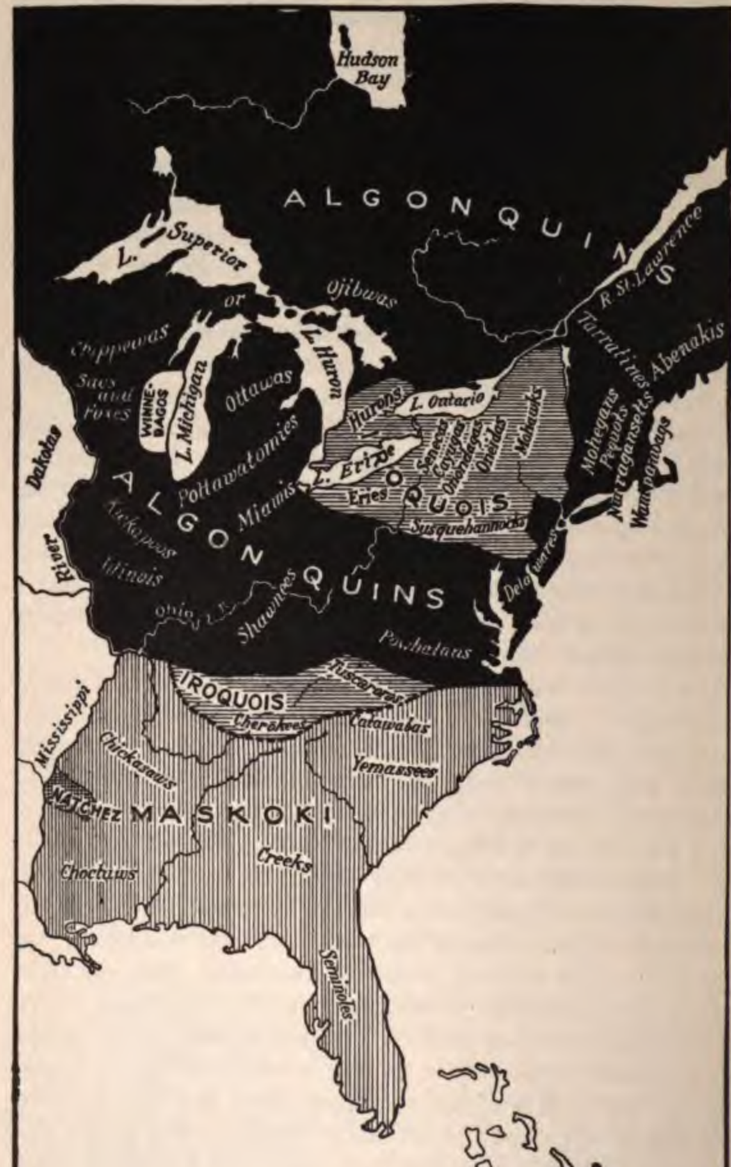
5. The Iroquois waged constant war with the Algonquins and subjugated many tribes. The Algonquins of the north combined with the French made a dangerous enemy. In 1645 a treaty of peace was made with the Five Nations. For a time the French were allowed to push their explorations and settlements to the west and south without much interference.

In 1649 the warriors of the Five Nations grew restless and turned their energies to the conquest of their kindred, the Hurons or Wyandots. In early times these tribes had offended them by refusing to join the confederation, and later, their alliance with the Algonquins and the French against the Men of the Long House made of them the bitterest enemies. Like all of the Iroquois, they had their palisaded villages with the long houses and the cultivated fields. In numbers they probably equaled the Five Nations, but the tribes were not organized. They had always been friendly with the French, and among them the Jesuit missionaries had made many converts.

In the depth of winter, the war parties of the Five Nations crossed the lake and stole quietly through the forests to the country of the Hurons on the shores of Lake Huron. The surprise was complete. The villages were taken and burned, and many of the inhabitants killed or taken prisoner. The few that escaped fled to the French at Quebec, or to the posts at the west. As a nation they were destroyed.

The Neutral Nations, north of Lake Erie, also Iroquois, were the next victims of the invaders. The Eries, another branch of the Iroquois, were attacked and almost destroyed. The few that were left were taken into the Five Nations. Then the victorious enemy threw themselves against the Andastes in the valley of the Susquehanna. These brave tribes were as warlike as their kinsmen, and it took twenty years to conquer them.

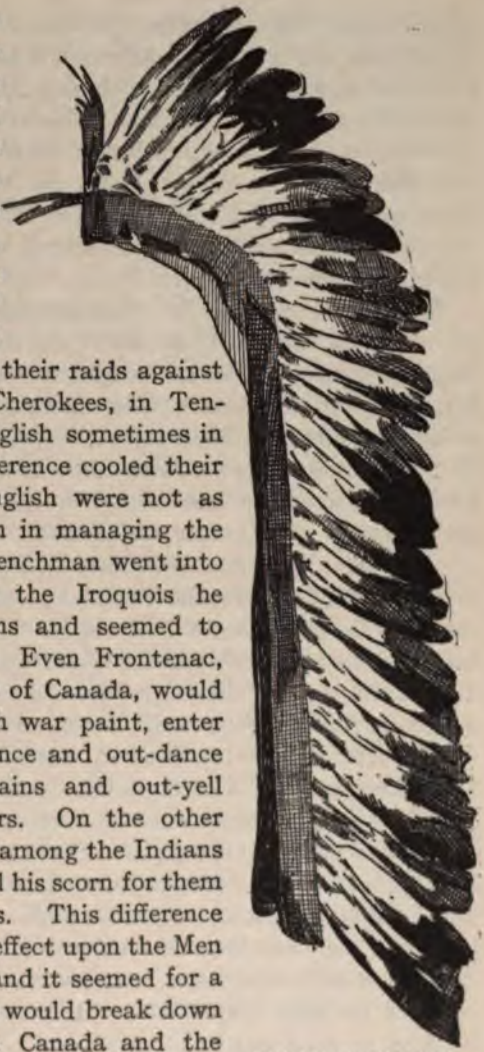
The country was now open to the Algonquins of the southeast, and in a short time the Delawares or Lenape, the principal tribe of the Algonquins, were subdued, their arms were taken from them, and they were called by their haughty conquerors "women," a most humiliating name for warriors. Then the Men of the Long House went to Canada and drove the Ottawas from their country about the river of that name. Forgetting their treaty with the French they harassed their forts and trading posts in the west, and their warwhoop was heard under the walls of Quebec. Frontenac, then governor, and LaSalle, who was pushing his way to the mouth of the Mississippi River, besought the Iroquois to spare their friends, the Illinois Indians, but the thirst for conquest was too great, and a formidable war party paddled down the Illinois River and falling upon the panic-stricken Indians, who had taken refuge upon an island in the river, destroyed the whole tribe. No wonder the Five Nations called themselves "Ongwehonwe" or "the men surpassing all nations." Their inso-



LOCATION OF EARLY INDIAN TRIBES

lence knew no bounds. From Maine to the Mississippi their name brought terror. "I had as lief," writes a French missionary, "be beset by goblins as by the Iroquois. The one are about as invisible as the other."

6. The Iroquois of the Five Nations, in their raids against their kinsmen, the Cherokees, in Tennessee, found the English sometimes in their way, and interference cooled their friendship. The English were not as skilful as the French in managing the Indians. When a Frenchman went into the wilderness with the Iroquois he adopted their customs and seemed to enjoy the wild life. Even Frontenac, when first governor of Canada, would besmear himself with war paint, enter the Iroquois war dance and out-dance their greatest chieftains and out-yell their bravest warriors. On the other hand an Englishman among the Indians could scarcely conceal his scorn for them and their foolish rites. This difference in treatment had its effect upon the Men of the Long House, and it seemed for a time that the French would break down the barrier between Canada and the much-desired country of the Ohio.



INDIAN HEADDRESS
Part of the regalia of war

But the Five Nations could not always forget their ancient wrongs, and still hoped to drive away the people who crowded them so closely. Their forays against the French were renewed. In 1696, Frontenac, though an old man, was again sent to govern Canada. At the head of an army of French regulars all in full uniform, with drums beating, trumpets blowing, and colors flying, followed by hordes of his Indian allies hideous in war paint and adorned with scalp locks, he marched through the country of the Iroquois. The awed barbarians retreated before him, and destroying the empty wigwams and deserted fields he returned to Canada.

Greatly weakened by this invasion the Five Nations decided that they could not drive the French away. As they must live as neighbors it might be better to accept their friendship, and soon Iroquois chiefs were exchanging visits with the French. When a party of Indians visited a French fort they were greeted with the firing of cannon and the beating of drums. The chiefs were feasted with the officers, and presents of uniforms and French flags were given them.

7. When the French and Indian War began, the English were doubtful about the friendship of the Iroquois. Fortunately for the English, Sir William Johnson was able to influence them to help the British army. Some twenty years before the war, William Johnson, a young Irishman, had settled in the valley of the Mohawk. He became rich through the fur trade, and was liked so much by the Mohawks that they looked upon him as a chief. He built two fortified mansions in the valley, and his houses were always open to his Indian friends. He was for a long time superintendent of Indian affairs and successfully controlled these treacherous people in the interests of the English.

When war was threatened between the colonists and the mother country, Johnson was uncertain whether he should cast his lot with England or with the people among whom he had so long made his home. In 1774, before fighting began, he died. The Iroquois, led by the great Mohawk chieftain Joseph Brant, or Thayendanega, fought for the English. They did cruel work in the war, taking an active part in the massacre of Colonel Herkimer and his brave men, at Fort Stanwix in New York, and in the atrocities of Wyoming and Cherry Valley. Their insolence became so great and their cruelties so unbearable that a special army was sent against them. In 1779, General Sullivan with five thousand men invaded the territory of the Iroquois and routed them and their Tory allies near the present town of Elmira. The villages and crops of the Cayugas and Senecas were destroyed.

This was a crushing blow, and their suffering during a cold winter which followed was severe. But the Men of the Long House were undaunted, and among other cruelties they almost destroyed a tribe of their own nation, the Oneidas, who had remained neutral during the war. From the English post at Niagara and other strongholds in Canada they continued their depredations for some time. But the glory of the Six Nations was past, and it is only as scattered tribes that they exist today.

8. The leaders among the Iroquois were noted for sagacity, courage and oratory. Among their wise chieftains was Hiawatha, who brought the "gift of peace" and united the Five Nations. One of the bravest was Joseph Brant, or Thayendanega, who took such an active part in the Revolutionary War. When a young boy this Mohawk chieftain attracted the attention of Sir William Johnson. Believing that the Indians could be educated and civilized, Johnson sent the boy to school, where he learned to use the English language and got a knowledge of general history and literature. He became a member of the Episcopal church and was for a time a missionary among the Mohawks. But he was none the less an Indian, and in the accomplishments of an Indian brave he could outshine all his fellows. It is claimed that his civilization was real enough to cause him to object to the torturing of prisoners.

Among the Iroquois the orator was as much esteemed as the warrior, and had as much influence in directing affairs. Many speeches of these orators have been preserved in history, and clever speeches they are. One of the most famous is that of Red Jacket at Buffalo. Logan, a Cayuga chief, was also an orator. He lived in close friendship with the English in Pennsylvania for many years, but when his family was killed by some rough frontiersmen, he became a bitter enemy.

9. While the Iroquois tribes led in intelligence they were by no means the greatest in numbers. The Algonquins included tribes from the Atlantic to the Mississippi and from Hudson Bay beyond the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Among these were the Powhatans of Virginia, the Mohicans of New England, the Lenape of Delaware, the Miamis and Shawnees of Ohio, the Illinois, and the Pottawatomies, Ottawas, Chippewas, and Sacs and Foxes of the country around the Great Lakes. One tribe, the Blackfeet, was found beyond the Mississippi. These tribes varied in habits and intelligence. The tribes of the east were partly agricultural and, like the Iroquois, had settled homes. Their houses were not as well built and were small and circular in shape. They were more easily influenced by the colonists, and the missionaries made more converts among them than among the Iroquois. They were not united and were easily subdued by their warlike neighbors. There were, however, many brave chieftains among them. Pontiac, who led the attacks upon the English forts upon the lakes just after the French and Indian War, was an Ottawa, and he showed considerable generalship. Tecumseh was a Shawnee chief, and Blackhawk, a chief of the Sacs and Foxes.

The Southern Indians were known as the Maskoki, and included the Creeks, the Chickasaws, the Choctaws, the Seminoles, and a few other tribes. Their territory extended from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and on the south to the Gulf of Mexico. Like the Iroquois they were a nation of warriors and lived in settled towns in well-constructed houses. Though good fighters, they had not the desire for conquest that characterized the Iroquois. They differed from the northern Indians in religion, being fireworshipers like the Indians of Mexico.

West of the Mississippi, the most important tribes were those of the Sioux or Dakotas. These are tall, well-built Indians with many of the characteristics of the Iroquois. Like them, they were brave and warlike. The sun dance, which has been forbidden by the government, is one of their religious rites in worship of the sun. Many of the Sioux still live in the Dakotas and parts of Minnesota. Some of the allied tribes are the Winnebagos, the Mandans and the Omahas.

The Pani or Pawnees, were an important tribe west of the Mississippi. They were an agricultural people, but also hunters of buffalo. They made a rude kind of pottery like the nations of the south and it is supposed that they came up from Mexico. Like the Aztecs they made sacrifices of human beings in their religious rites. Their home was in Nebraska, but the remnant of the tribe lives now in Oklahoma.

There were numerous small tribes of Indians west of the Rocky Mountains but none of marked importance. Most of them were small in stature and stupid in intellect, very unlike the tribes of the east. They were remarkably skilful in making baskets.

In New Mexico, Arizona, parts of Colorado and Utah, there lived some semi-civilized tribes of Indians known as Pueblos and Cliff Dwellers. The Pueblos built large houses of stone and adobe in which many families lived. The cliff dwellings were built on ledges of rock along the sides of cliffs. Like the dwellings of the Pueblos they contained many rooms and many people. They were probably built for defence, as neighboring tribes of savages like the Apache Indians made frequent attacks upon them. These people made artistic pottery and baskets, and wove beautiful blankets. They were far in advance of even the best of the Iroquois in civilization, and closely resembled the Aztecs of Mexico.

10. The Iroquois tribes, as above described, display the strong Indian traits in more marked fashion than any other American tribes. They are remarkably brave and reckless fighters, full of the spirit of conquest over their neighbors,

and intensely cruel and relentless in their pursuit of their foes. Physically they possessed fine, commanding forms, great personal prowess, marvelous endurance and persistence in their peculiar style of warfare, and in many cases, remarkable skill in oratory. As a group of related tribes they had more capacity for organization than any other Indians, but they were not capable of adopting civilized modes of life. They had a boundless pride in themselves and in their own mode of life, and little power to imitate and take on the superior customs and ideas of the white race. The other Indian tribes of North America possessed in a less marked degree the characteristics of the Iroquois.

Historically the Iroquois confederation of Indian tribes had a powerful influence upon the early settlement and development of the country. For two centuries they held central New York, hindering the French from developing strongly along the Ohio and even on the Great Lakes. By holding central New York, they also prevented the English from settling that part of the state and from moving westward. But at the close of the Revolution when the power of the Iroquois was finally broken, the English filled up central New York and then moved westward along the Great Lakes.

In the westward movement of the pioneers and settlers the various Indian tribes all the way from Alabama and Georgia to New York resisted the whites in a way similar to the Iroquois, but one after another their tribes and confederacies were compelled to give way before the superior power of the whites.

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3. Type Study on the Puritans

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) In the first part of this topic the political and religious conditions in England will need to be understood. The fuller details of the hardships of the Pilgrims in their removal to Holland and of their voyage and landing are found in the larger histories and reference books.

(*b*) The political situation of the Puritans under James I and their successful effort to secure a charter are important and require fuller elaboration.

(*c*) Notice that the Puritans about Boston and New England settled by congregations, led by their favorite pastors. The separate church and town meeting naturally resulted.

(*d*) The organization of representative government, while natural, needs special attention and discussion.

(*e*) The disposition of the Puritans to keep splitting off from the mother church gives special emphasis to their character as separatists. Most of the New England colonies were formed by congregations which separated themselves from the leaders about Boston.

(*f*) All the leaders in early New England settlements are strong characters for study. Compare them with each other and with later leaders like William Penn, Oglethorpe, etc.

(*g*) Study the source books, like those of Hart, for lively pictures of manners and customs.

Outline of Topics

1. The rise of the Puritans in England.
2. The Pilgrims in Holland and the journey to America.
3. Their landing and experiences at Plymouth.
4. The large migrations of the Puritans to Salem, Boston, etc. Endicott, Winthrop and Dudley as leaders.
5. The first assembly. Representatives in the general court.
6. Organization of the congregational churches. The town meeting.
7. Rapid growth in number of towns and population. Roads and bridges. Schools. Harvard University.
8. Effort to take away the charter. Strong opposition.
9. Roger Williams. Anne Hutchinson.

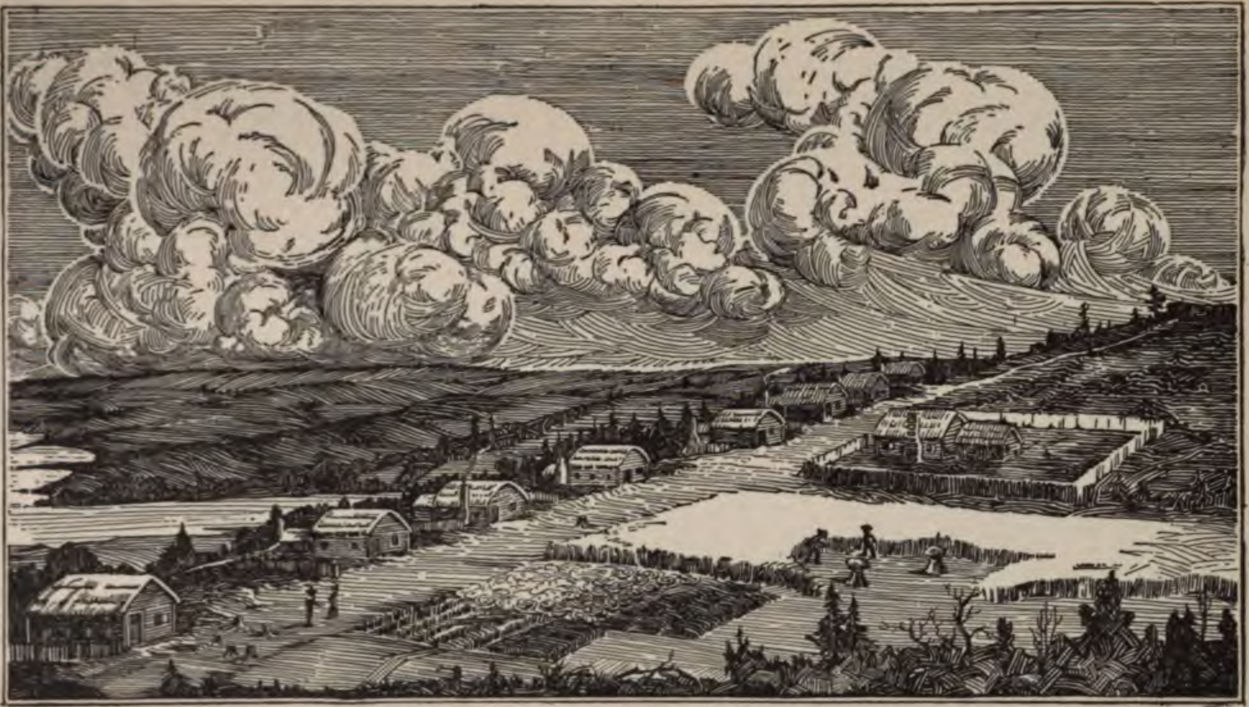
from cold as well as from lack of food. This first winter more than half of their number died. They were not discouraged, however, for as Brewster said, "It is not with us as with men whom small things can discourage or small discontentments cause to wish themselves at home again." A platform was built on the nearest hill and manned with a few cannon as protection against the Indians. During the first summer this platform became a fortress. A treaty with Massasoit, chief of the nearest tribes, the Wampanoags, was made, and for a long time the settlers were not disturbed by Indians. As their settlement was not within the province of the London Company they obtained another grant from the Plymouth Company. At the end of the first summer they had cleared enough land to furnish a plentiful harvest and Governor Bradford appointed a day of Thanksgiving. After ten years they numbered only three hundred. In 1630 their numbers were greatly increased, and in 1670 the population of Plymouth Colony was about 8,000, and was distributed among twenty towns.

2. Among the Puritans in England were many men of wealth, culture and high social position. These men became interested in colonizing New England and purchased a large tract of land from the Plymouth Company. As Charles I was rather glad to be rid of them he readily granted a charter which incorporated them as the Massachusetts Bay Company. In 1629 the Company decided to take its charter to New England and found a self-governing community there.

John Endicott had been sent over with some sixty men in 1628, and had settled at a place a short distance from Plymouth which he called Salem. A tract of land had been obtained which next year was included in the grant of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. In 1629 John Winthrop, a wealthy gentleman from Groton in Suffolk, was chosen governor for the company. Winthrop was a man of unusual talents. He had the same power of winning confidence and respect that made Washington so remarkable. While he was a stanch Puritan, he was a liberal one, and a marked con-

DEPARTURE OF THE PILGRIMS

MJ



APPEARANCE OF PLYMOUTH COLONY IN ITS SECOND YEAR

The house of Governor Bradford is within the stockade trast to the deputy-governor, Dudley. Thomas Dudley belonged to an ancient noble family of England. His Puritanism was bleak and stern, and he was not remarkable for Christian charity.

Charles I was governing England without a Parliament, and the outlook for the Puritans at home was dark. With two such eminent men as Winthrop and Dudley at the head of a colony many were attracted to the scheme, and when Winthrop came to Salem in 1630 he brought nearly a thousand people with him. Colonies were made at Dorchester, Roxbury, Charlestown and Watertown. Governor Winthrop made his headquarters first at Charlestown, then moved to a hilly peninsula where the highest hill was crowned with three summits. The English called this Trimountain or Tremont, but the name was later changed to Boston, the name of a town in England from which many of the colonists came.

5. Public business was at first carried on by an assembly of all freemen in the colony, meeting four times a year. But the number of colonists increased so rapidly that this plan was not practicable, and representatives were elected by the colonists for a general court. At first the deputies sat in the same chamber with the Board of Assistants who were elected by the Company, but in 1644 they were formed into a second chamber with increased powers. This was the beginning of our present form of government.

6. When the Puritans first came to New England they were not separated from the Church of England, but such a separation soon was made. The Episcopal service was simplified, much of it was discarded, and the first congregational church was established. Two men who insisted upon Episcopal forms were sent back to England. It was decreed that "no man shall be admitted to the freedom of this body politic but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same." There were no bishops in the new organization. Each church formed a parish. As at first each town had but one church, the inhabitants of a town and the church congregation were the same people.

From the painting by Boughton

PURITANS GOING TO CHURCH

When settlers came over from England they were usually led by a minister and settled together in parishes or townships. The church was the meeting-place for business as well as religious services, and was called the meeting-house. Later, town halls were built. The meeting-house and the town hall usually stood beside a large grazing-ground or common. On or near the common was often placed a substantial block-house where all could find refuge in case of attacks of Indians.

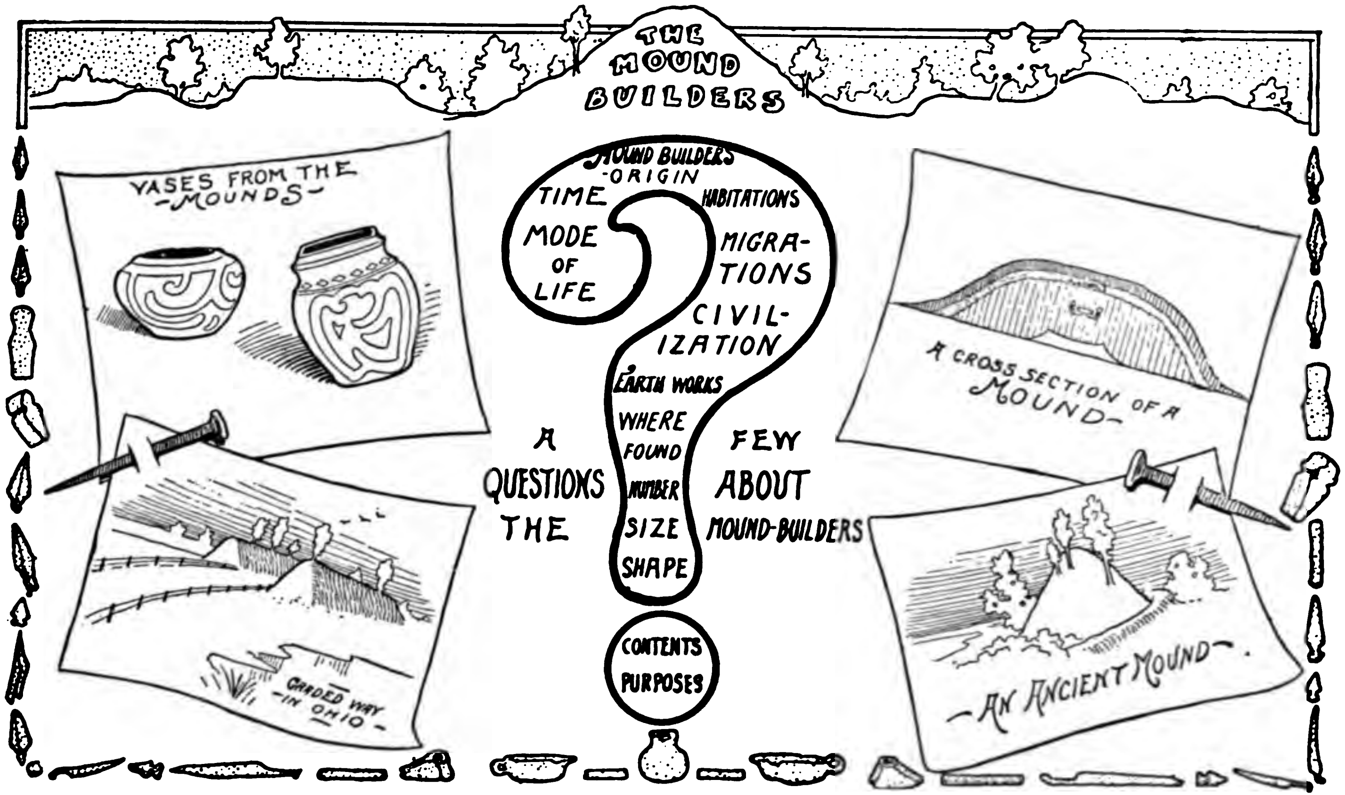
7. By 1634 nearly 4,000 settlers had arrived and about twenty villages had been founded. Permanent houses, roads, fences and bridges were built. In exchange for manufactured articles the colonists sent lumber, furs and salted fish to England. Several thousand goats and cattle grazed in the pastures, and pigs rooted in the clearings and helped to make the land ready for the plow. The interests of education were not neglected. Common schools were started in all the towns. So many of the Puritans were university men, mostly from Cambridge, that a university was considered indispensable. One of the most distinguished of the university men was John Cotton, who had left a magnificent parish in England to hold service in a rude meeting-house in Boston. Thomas Hooker and John Harvard were noted university men. The general court gave four hundred pounds to establish a university. John Harvard of Charlestown, dying childless, left his books and half of his estate to the new college. This college had been established at Newtown, about three miles from Boston. The name of the town was changed to Cambridge and the college was called Harvard.

8. About this time the colony was threatened with the loss of its charter. An attempt was made to seize the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and divide the land up among some half-dozen noblemen. The colonists decided to offer armed resistance. Forts were built about Boston Harbor, the militia was put in training, and a beacon light was set on the highest hill to give warning if an enemy should appear. Affairs in England soon took all the attention of the king, and Massachusetts was for the time forgotten.

9. Among the noted men who came over in 1631 was Roger Williams, one of the noblest men of the time. He was a graduate of Cambridge, and had taken orders in England. Becoming a Puritan, he came to Salem, where in 1633 he was made pastor. He believed in religious liberty, in the entire separation of church and state and in the equal protection of all forms of religious faith. These advanced views did not meet with the approval of the Puritans of Massachusetts, and Roger Williams was ordered back to England. He escaped to the wilderness and passed the winter with the Narragansett Indians. He was an accomplished linguist and soon learned their language and acquired great influence over them. In the spring of 1636, Winthrop privately sent word to him that he was at liberty to settle at Narragansett Bay, as no one would molest him. He started a settlement and called it Providence.

This same year, 1636, a bright and capable woman named Anne Hutchinson came to Boston and gave lectures there. She soon had a large following, among them John Cotton and the governor, Sir Henry Vane. Her views were considered dangerous by the majority of the people and she was expelled from the colony. Going northward, some of her friends founded the towns of Exeter and Hampton. She herself bought the island of Aquidneck from the Indians for forty fathoms of white wampum, twenty hoes and ten coats. The island was soon called Rhode Island. Anne and her friends founded Portsmouth, while at the southern end of the island William Coddington began the town of Newport. Later she moved into the New Netherlands and was murdered by the Indians.

10. Sir Henry Vane, who had arrived in Boston shortly before the departure of Roger Williams, was one of the greatest of the Puritan statesmen. Like Williams he was a friend of toleration, and he also found Massachusetts an uncomfortable home. In 1636 he was only twenty-four years old, yet he was chosen governor for that year. In the spring of 1637 Winthrop was chosen governor and Vane returned


THE MOUND BUILDERS
VASES FROM THE -MOUNDS-
-GRADED WAY -IN OHIO-
MOUND BUILDERS -ORIGIN
TIME
MODE OF LIFE
HABITATIONS
MIGRATIONS
CIVILIZATION
EARTH WORKS
WHERE FOUND
NUMBER
SIZE
SHAPE
CONTENTS
PURPOSES
A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT THE MOUND-BUILDERS
A CROSS SECTION OF A MOUND
-AN ANCIENT MOUND-

to England. His father was close to King Charles, and Vane was able to aid the Puritans in getting and maintaining charters. He was for a long time member of Parliament and joint treasurer of the navy. He was arrested at the restoration of Charles II and executed on a charge of treason.

11. The eventful year of 1636 saw the beginning of Connecticut. The Dutch had sent a branch colony from New Amsterdam to Hartford. The younger John Winthrop, son of the founder of Boston, saw that the Connecticut River was important for the fur trade. In 1635 he built a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River which shut off the Dutch from the harbor and made it impossible for them to hold Hartford. He named it Saybrook for two Puritan noblemen, the lords Say and Brooke.

12. This same year twenty vessels came from England to Massachusetts, bringing 3,000 colonists. There was plenty of room for them near Boston, but they did not approve of the Massachusetts plan of allowing none but church members to vote. Some members of the Massachusetts colony felt the same opposition to putting so much power into the hands of the church. In the towns of Dorchester, Newtown and Watertown this feeling was very strong. Thomas Hooker, the pastor of Newtown, thought that every colonist should help in legislation. Winthrop defended the restriction of suffrage, writing to Hooker, "the best part is always the least, and of that best part the wiser part is always the lesser." Hooker replied, "in matters which concern the common good, a general council, chosen by all, I conceive most suitable to rule and most safe for relief of the whole." As they could not agree, in the summer of 1636 the Newtown congregation, led by their pastor, and taking with them 160 head of cattle, made their way through the wilderness to Connecticut and established themselves at Hartford. The Dorchester and Watertown congregations soon followed. Many of the newcomers, attracted by this freedom of suffrage, pushed their way on to Connecticut. The towns of Windsor and Wethersfield were founded, and before the next summer

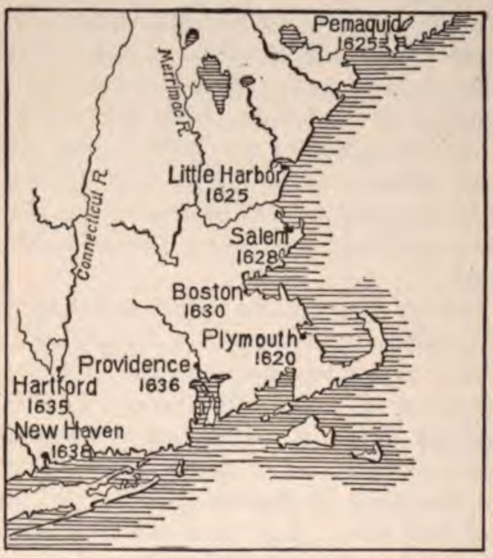
opened, more than 800 people were living in these three towns.

13. The treaty which the Pilgrims had made with Massasoit kept the Wampanoags quiet for many years. The Narragansetts were kept in order by the friendship of Roger Williams. But the Pequots, a powerful tribe at the west, resented the encroachments of the white men and resolved to drive them from the country. For several months the Pequots prowled around the Connecticut villages, murdering and kidnapping until the colonists could endure their outrages no longer. Connecticut gathered a force of ninety men under John Mason, and Massachusetts sent twenty men under the daring and eccentric John Underhill. With their Indian allies they attacked the stronghold of the Pequots, containing 700 Indians, and demolished it. Only five Indians escaped. The Pequots as a nation were destroyed, and the terror inspired by this slaughter kept other tribes in subjection for many years.

14. In 1638 the town of New Haven was founded by a company of wealthy London merchants who came to Boston with their families. Their pastor who accompanied them was John Davenport, a graduate of Oxford and vicar of a London parish. With Theophilus Eaton, a member of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, he planned this migration to New England. Finding some dissension at Boston they decided to found a settlement of their own. The merchants wanted a good harbor and found what they desired at New Haven. The next year a party from New Haven founded Milford, while another, fresh from London, settled at Guilford. In 1640 Stanford was added to the group, and in 1643 the four towns were united into the republic of New Haven. In the New Haven colony none but church members could vote. The power of the clergy reached the extreme, but the famous "Blue Laws" were a myth concocted by a Tory refugee, Dr. Peters, who wished to bring discredit upon his fellow New Englanders. In a book which he published in 1781 in London, he states that in New Haven "no woman shall kiss her child on the Sabbath" and that "no one shall play on any instrument of

music except the drum, trumpet, or jewsharp." These statements were accepted as facts by many people and the Blue Laws of Connecticut were often quoted.

15. In 1643 the colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Haven and Plymouth combined for protection against the Indians and the Dutch. They called themselves "The United Colonies of New England." The affairs were managed by two representatives from each colony. Rhode Island was not allowed in the confederation because Roger Williams allowed too much freedom of belief. While this confederation was not entirely satisfactory, it lasted for forty years.



EARLY SETTLEMENTS NEAR BOSTON

16. When the Long Parliament met in 1640 the Puritan exodus came to an end. The population of the New England colonies was now about 26,000, the greater part of which had come over during the reign of Charles I. The Puritans in England were for many years occupied with affairs in their own country, and the colony in New England continued to multiply on its own soil for a century and a half, in remarkable seclusion from other communities. These colonists were selected men from the best English stock. One of their number said in 1688, "God sifted a whole nation, that he might send choice grain into the wilderness." In this independent, isolated life this sturdy people developed a type of

character that has been of great value to the world. It was not until after the Revolution that the Puritans began to push west. Now their descendants are found in every community, and form, it is claimed, one-fourth of the population of the United States.

17. The rank and file as well as the leaders of New England history were people of strong religious convictions and of fixed determination to assert their religious rights. They were stern and uncompromising, not very kindly disposed toward those, even of their own number, who differed from them in opinion. They were strongly democratic in their way of thinking, although some of their leaders, like Winthrop, believed the more intelligent and educated few should rule. They established the town meeting for controlling local affairs and for choosing representatives to the General Court or legislature. The average man was practical, industrious, well versed in the Scriptures and qualified to vote and discuss matters in the town meeting. A comparison of the New England folk with those of other colonies which you will doubtless study later will be fruitful. The reasons for which the founders of the different colonies left their homes of course determined in large measure the character of the people who were originally attracted to them.

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4. Type Study on George Washington

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) The life of Washington furnishes several of the best centers around which to organize the history of his times.

(*b*) The comparisons of Washington with other leaders of his time and country and with men of similar prominence in other countries furnish the best opportunities for character study.

(*c*) His important campaigns, as Braddock's expedition and the revolutionary movements, should be illustrated by detailed special maps. Let the children also reproduce such maps on paper and blackboard.

(*d*) The biographies of Washington and source materials, like Hart's books, furnish the realistic details needed for a proper appreciation of his character and life.

(*e*) The dress and manners of colonial and revolutionary times are revealed in the source histories and books like Alice Morse Earle's "Costumes of Colonial Times."

(*f*) The great speeches in estimation of Washington's character, such as Everett's and Webster's, and such a poem as Lowell's "Under the Old Elm" are valuable for maturer readers.

Outline of Topics

1. Washington's family.
2. His childhood and youth.
3. His journey to Venango, Great Meadows and Fort Necessity.
4. With Braddock.
5. Military duties and end of the war.
6. Life at Mount Vernon.
7. Washington as patriot; as commander-in-chief.
8. Washington as president; his death.
9. Comparisons with other leading men of his own time and of other countries.

GEORGE WASHINGTON

1. In the early part of the seventeenth century the ancestors of George Washington left their home in England and, like many other cavaliers of that period, made a new

home in Virginia. Several members of this family had distinguished themselves in the wars in England on the side of the king. The two brothers who left England after the death of Charles I took up large plantations between the Potomac and Rappahannock Rivers. Augustine Washington, the grandson of one of these brothers, inherited much of this land. When he was still a young man his wife died, leaving two young sons. Augustine married, after a time, one of the belles of the neighborhood, Mary Ball. The first child of this marriage was a son who was named George. George Washington was born in 1732, at the family home on Bridges Creek in Westmoreland County. While he was still an infant his father moved to another estate opposite Fredericksburg. Here Washington spent his childhood.

2. It was the custom among the wealthy planters of Virginia to send their sons to England to be educated. Lawrence, George's oldest brother, was sent at the age of fifteen. George was then only one year old. When his brother returned he was about seven years of age and looked with pride upon his big brother who had learned so many wonderful things in the old country.

Soon after Lawrence returned to Virginia there was trouble between Spain and England and a campaign was planned against the West Indies. A regiment was raised in the colonies and Lawrence Washington obtained a captain's commission in it. The sound of fife and drum was heard everywhere, and recruits were paraded on the village green. Even the children of Hobby's "old field school house" on the Washington estate caught the war spirit and played war instead of other childish games. George was leader in these games and put his schoolmates through parades, reviews and sham fights.

Lawrence returned to Virginia in 1742, having done good service in the war. He won the friendship of Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth, his commanders, and when they returned to England he decided to join his regiment in that country and devote himself to a military career. But his father died suddenly in the spring of 1743, leaving large possessions in Virginia. Lawrence was given the estate upon the Potomac River, and marrying a Miss Fairfax, the daughter of a wealthy neighbor, he settled upon this estate, calling it Mount Vernon in honor of his friend Admiral Vernon. Augustine, the second brother, who had returned from school in England, was given the plantation on Bridges Creek, while the property of the younger children was left in charge of their mother. George was to have the estate on the Rappahannock when he became of age.

George was now eleven years old. He had outgrown the field school and it was decided that he should be sent to his brother Augustine's at Bridges Creek, where there was a superior school kept by a Mr. Williams. Here he acquired a practical education. He did not study languages but was well drilled in mathematics. He copied many kinds of mercantile and legal papers. His neatly kept note books have been preserved. One is ornamented with pictures of birds and human faces after the manner of many modern boys' note books. One of the important studies in this new country was land surveying, and Washington became an expert surveyor. He did not spend all of his time in study, as he was fond of all kinds of athletic exercises. He practiced running, wrestling, pitching quoits and tossing bars. He was naturally large and strongly built, and this training made him a leader among his playmates in contests of agility and strength.

For some reason Washington was not sent to England to complete his education. He thought at one time that he wanted to enter the navy. His brother Lawrence got him a midshipman's warrant in the British navy when he was fourteen. Preparations were made for his departure, but at the last moment his mother withdrew her consent and George returned to his studies at home.

Lawrence Washington continued his interest in his young brother and often had him to visit at Mount Vernon. This was an advantage to the growing youth. Lawrence's wife was a daughter of the Fairfax family, a cultured and wealthy family from England. Her father, William Fairfax, had received an excellent education in England, and while serving in the army had had much travel and experience. He came to Virginia to manage the great estates of Lord Fairfax, his cousin, who, tiring of life at court, had sought refuge in the wilderness. The family lived at Belvoir, a short distance from Mount Vernon, in the style of an English country gentleman. George often visited here with his brother, and contact with these cultivated people made him ambitious to improve his manners so that he might appear well in their society. It was this influence, doubtless, that caused him to write his "Rules for Behavior in Company and Conversation." These rules can still be seen in his own writing.

About this time, at the age of fifteen, were written some other manuscripts which show that his thoughts were not always of a practical nature. He became much interested in some "lowland beauty" whose name he fails to record, and was very unhappy because she slighted the awkward youth.

One of George's good friends at Belvoir was Lord Fairfax himself. This nobleman was found of foxhunting, and as George was a fearless horseman he made the boy his hunting companion. When Washington was just sixteen this friend, Lord Fairfax, wishing to have his great possessions beyond the Blue Ridge Mountains surveyed, offered the task to George. George's school training had fitted him for this work, and his love for outdoor life and adventure made it very desirable. In March, 1748, he set out on horseback, accompanied by George William Fairfax, the oldest son of the owner of Belvoir, for this journey to the wilderness. He surveyed much of the Shenandoah Valley. His work was well done, and the knowledge gained in woodcraft and Indian customs was of service to him in later years. He was gone four weeks. Lord Fairfax was so well pleased with the accuracy of the surveys that he used his influence to have Washington appointed public surveyor. Washington held this position for three years.

3. At the age of nineteen a new occupation opened up for George Washington. Preparations were being made in Virginia for the conflict between France and England for the possession of the land along the Ohio River. France claimed this land through La Salle's discoveries, but the Virginia grant covered this territory, and the Ohio Company, of which Lawrence Washington was chief manager, was organized for the purpose of settling this disputed possession. France had already built a fort at Presque Isle, on Lake Erie, and one at Venango, on the Allegheny River. Frenchmen were sending emissaries to stir up the Indians against the English, and war seemed certain. Regiments were raised in Virginia, and George Washington was made adjutant-general of his district, with the rank of major.

Unfortunately, about this time Lawrence Washington's health failed and he went to the Barbados for a milder climate and took George with him. In 1752 they returned to Virginia, where Lawrence died within a short time. Washington was made executor of his estate, which was left to his infant daughter. In case she died without heirs the property was to revert to George. She lived but a few years, and at her death he became possessor of Mount Vernon. Upon him also fell much of the work of the Ohio Company, and he became well acquainted with its affairs. When Governor Dinwiddie decided to send a messenger to Venango to warn the French that they were on English territory he selected Washington as the man best fitted for the task.

Washington was now twenty-one years old and a young man for such a mission. His woodland experience while surveying aided him in his journey, and he reached Venango in safety. He presented the governor's message and received a sealed reply. His return was beset with peril. Hostile Indians followed him. It was the middle of winter and he was delayed by ice and snow. He talked with friendly Indians, and threatened hostile chiefs, and conducted the whole affair so well that when he reached Virginia in January he found himself famous.

GEORGE WASHINGTON IN EARLY MANHOOD
As he appeared about the time of Braddock's disastrous campaign

While Washington was in the Ohio country he had selected the junction of the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers as the most commanding place for a fort. The Ohio Company began building there. Before troops were sent to protect the works, a large party of French came down the river and took possession of them. The fifty men who were at work there were allowed to depart with their tools. The French erected a strong fort which they called Fort Duquesne.

In April, 1754, Washington with a small force of men was sent to break a path through the wilderness and to do what he could to check the advance of the French. At Great Meadows he met a small body of the French and defeated it. The commander and nine others were killed and twenty-two prisoners were sent to Virginia. His position so near Fort Duquesne was a dangerous one and he built a palisaded fort which he named Fort Necessity. Here he was attacked by a large force of the French and forced to surrender. His troops were allowed to march out with all their military stores excepting the artillery, and made their way home in safety. Soon after reaching Virginia, Washington threw up his commission and returned to Mount Vernon to look after the work of his plantation. The agricultural life was always attractive to him.

4. In 1755, General Braddock was sent from England to assist the colonists in driving the French from their territory. Braddock was a brave general, but knew nothing of border warfare. He brought with him two regiments of five hundred men each. About four hundred men selected from the Virginia troops were to be added to these regiments.

Alexandria was made headquarters. Washington often rode over from Mount Vernon and was delighted with the maneuvers of the regular troops. When General Braddock upon the recommendation of the governor and other friends offered him the position of aid-de-camp he accepted it without hesitation, for the military experience would be of great value to him.

There were many delays in getting started. General Braddock wished to take with him all the equipment of a regular army, and it was necessary to clear roads, procure horses and wagons, and gather supplies for feeding the soldiers.

Braddock would take no advice from the colonists. "If our march is to be regulated by the slow movements of the train," Washington told him, "it will be tedious, very tedious indeed"; and Braddock smiled at the ignorance of the young officer who was so ignorant of the march of regular armies.

The army made its way slowly to Fort Cumberland. It was June when it started over the mountains. The progress was so slow that at Great Meadows Braddock took Washington's advice, and leaving the heavy baggage with part of his troop pushed on with twelve hundred men, ten field pieces, and necessary baggage upon pack horses. As the army neared Fort Duquesne the strictest military discipline was maintained. A ford of the Monongahela was crossed with bayonets fixed, colors flying, and drums and fifes beating and playing. Washington, who had been ill during the latter part of the march, was so delighted with his first sight of a well-disciplined European army on the eve of battle that he forgot his illness. In the awful carnage which followed the attack by the ambushed French and Indians he bore himself most valiantly. He seemed to be in every part of the field—a fine mark for the attacking foe. Two horses were shot under him, and four bullets passed through his coat, but he was uninjured. It was he who helped bring the wounded Braddock from the field, he who was with him when he died, and he who read the funeral service at his grave at Great Meadows.

5. Washington returned to Mount Vernon. His connection with the regular army ceased, but as adjutant-general of the northern division of the province he continued his military duties. Troops were called for service on the frontier, and in August when the assembly met, orders were issued for the raising of one thousand men for service against the French and Indians, and Washington was made commander-in-chief of all the forces raised in the colony.

In 1756 Washington made a visit to Boston to consult with General Shirley, who was now in command of the British forces in the colonies. The young Virginian was well received, for his service to his country was appreciated there. He returned to Virginia and busied himself with erecting military posts for the protection of the frontier. Fort Loudon at Winchester was the most important post.

After the British successes in Canada an expedition against Fort Duquesne was planned, and Washington's command was to assist in this enterprise. When they reached the fort they found it deserted by the French. The works were repaired and well manned, and the name was changed to Fort Pitt.

It was upon the eve of Washington's departure upon this campaign that he met the charming widow Custis at the house of a friend. At the end of the war he married Mrs. Custis and settled down at Mount Vernon to look after his estate. To a friend in England he writes "I am now, I believe, fixed in this seat, with an agreeable partner for life, and I hope to find more happiness in retirement than I ever experienced in the wide and bustling world." He had been elected to the House of Burgesses just before the close of the war. When he went to Williamsburg to take his seat the speaker returned thanks on behalf of the colony for the distinguished services Washington had given to his country. Washington arose to reply but could not utter a word. "Sit down," said the speaker, "your modesty equals your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language I possess."

6. At Mount Vernon Washington found work enough to occupy his time. A Virginian estate was in those days a little empire with the mansion as the seat of government. All sorts of industries were carried on upon the plantation, as there were no cities nor factories from which to obtain supplies. Only the luxuries were brought from England; everything else was made on the place. The care of the tobacco, which was the principal crop, required many slaves, who were fed and clothed from products of the plantation.

Washington breakfasted at seven in the summer and at eight in the winter. Then he rode on horseback all over the estate where work was going on. Dinner was served at two o'clock. The afternoon was often spent in visiting or in entertaining friends at home, for the Virginians were a hospitable people. During the hunting season he would often be out with the fox hounds two and three times a week. There would be a hunting dinner either at home or at a neighboring plantation which Washington enjoyed exceedingly. Sometimes he and his wife would visit Williamsburg or the Maryland capital at Annapolis, where they would take part in dinners, balls and other festivities. Thus passed several tranquil years, spent in agricultural pursuits, duties as a member of the House of Burgesses, and in social pleasures. Then came another call from his country.

MOUNT VERNON

7. Although Virginia was more closely related to the mother country than the New England colonies, she was as quick to resent the Stamp Act and other unjust taxation that followed the French and Indian War. It was in the House of Burgesses that Patrick Henry introduced the resolutions declaring that the General Assembly of Virginia alone had the right to tax that colony, and whoever claimed the contrary was an enemy. When the first Continental Congress was called, Washington was one of the delegates. When Patrick Henry was asked upon his return from this Congress who

was the greatest man there, he replied, "If you speak of eloquence, Mr. Ruttledge of South Carolina is by far the greatest orator; but if you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Colonel Washington is unquestionably the greatest man on that floor."

When Washington saw that war with England was inevitable he declared his intention of devoting his life and his fortune to the cause.

After Lexington, Ticonderoga and Crown Point had marked the beginning of the conflict, the Second Continental Congress convened at Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, decided that a continental army should be raised, and unanimously elected Washington commander-in-chief. He joined the army at Cambridge about two weeks after the battle of Bunker Hill, and on the morning of July 3, 1775, he took formal command. From this time until the successful close of the war with the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown in 1781, he devoted himself unceasingly to the cause of liberty. While he rejoiced at successes he was calm in defeat, and no obstruction seemed to turn him from his purpose.

When the treaty of peace was signed in 1783, and the last of the British army had left New York, Washington started for Annapolis, where Congress was assembling, to ask leave to resign his command. As he passed through New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland, scenes of his anxious campaigns, he was received with the greatest enthusiasm by the people. At Annapolis he surrendered his commission before an attentive audience of representative people with a brief address, which closed as follows: "Having now finished the work assigned me I retire from the great theatre of action; and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

The next morning he hastened to Mount Vernon, where he arrived on Christmas eve. To his friend Governor Clinton he wrote, "The scene is at last closed. I feel myself eased of a load of public care. I hope to spend the remainder of my days in cultivating the affections of good men, and in the practice of domestic virtues."

8. During the troubled times following the war Washington's advice was often sought by the country's leaders. When a convention was called to form a constitution Washington was placed at the head of the Virginia delegates. When the time arrived for the election of a president for these United States, Washington was unanimously chosen. He bade farewell to Mount Vernon with regret and proceeded to New York. His journey was one great ovation, and his reception in New York a triumph. The inauguration took place on April 30, 1789. His term of office was a trying one, as there were many problems to be met. He was wise and tactful in dealing with them, and in 1793 he was elected for a second term. He refused to be a candidate for a third term, and returned to Mount Vernon. His estates had been neglected during his long absence and he was greatly interested in restoring them to a high standard. As was his custom, he rode about on horseback superintending the work. In December, 1799, he was caught in a storm and contracted a cold which developed into an illness that ended in death. A deep sorrow spread over the nation at the news of his death. When the news reached England, Lord Bridport, who had command of nearly sixty ships, lowered his flag at half mast, and all the ships followed his example. Napoleon Bonaparte, on announcing his death to the army, ordered that black crape should be suspended from all the standards and flags throughout the public service for ten days.

9. COMPARISONS OF WASHINGTON WITH OTHER MEN.

a. Washington in early life was a backwoods surveyor and Indian fighter. He was brought up in the severest school of border warfare and rude frontier hardship. In these experiences he ranks with men like Champlain, Frontenac, George Rogers Clark, Anthony Wayne, Andrew Jackson and Robertson.

b. In his second large field of public service, as leader of armies in the Revolution, he easily stands first among such men as Lee, Schuyler, Green, Gates, Arnold, Knox, etc. The Revolutionary War centers most of its important military undertakings around the person and plans of Washington. While Washington was not a military genius like Cromwell or Caesar or Napoleon, while he won few important battles, his final success in the Revolution was won by great steadiness and by wisdom in seizing advantages.

c. As a statesman who helped to frame our constitution and establish in its beginnings a wise national policy, which greatly strengthened the federal power and union of the states, Washington occupies a position of importance hardly equaled by any man in history. While our country has had a remarkable series of great and good men as leaders, like Samuel Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Hamilton, Jefferson, John Quincy Adams, Webster, Clay and Sumner, none seems to rank with Washington except Lincoln.

d. When Washington is compared with Fabius at Rome, William the Silent in Holland, Cromwell in England and Caesar at Rome, we shall find that in worthy achievement and nobleness of character he stands second to none.

A man preëminent in any one of these ways might be looked upon as a great man. Washington was preëminent in all.

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PRESIDENT WASHINGTON DELIVERING HIS FIRST INAUGURAL ADDRESS

5. Type Study on the American Flag

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) A number of historical facts may be associated with the evolution of the flag.

(*b*) In teaching respect for the symbolism of the flag, the growing sense of nationality and patriotism toward the union are inculcated.

(*c*) The books referred to in the list give excellent colored pictures of the various flags used in our history, and also of those of other nations for comparison.

(*d*) Many interesting stories from the battlefield experience and from the lives of Washington, Lincoln and other leaders are given in the flag books, besides poems and orations not here included.

(*e*) The ceremonial uses of the flag can be put in practice in some of the school exercises and celebrations.

(*f*) Children should be taught to despise the desecration of the flag to commercial uses and to any kind of unworthy treatment or use.

Outline of Topics

1. Why we have a flag and owe it respect.
2. History of the origin of the flag during the Revolutionary period.
3. Changes in the flag and its final form.
4. Historical episodes in connection with the flag. Origin of our national song. Paul Jones's great sea fight.
5. Ceremonial uses of the flag.
6. Flag song. *Star-spangled Banner. The American Flag.* Webster's peroration.
7. Comparison with the flags of England, France and other nations.

THE AMERICAN FLAG

1. The flag of the United States has come to be a much cherished symbol of our national life. It has not always been so regarded, and it is only slowly through a period of one hundred thirty years and more that it has grown into respect and honor not only at home but abroad in other lands.

Every country takes a pride in its flag as a symbol of whatever greatness or power it represents among its people.

But the people of the United States look upon this flag as the symbol of progress and liberty more than that of any other nation. The reason for this is that it originated in the great struggle for liberty during the Revolution and our brave men at that time suffered so much in battle and on the march as they followed this flag. Since the Revolution also our flag has been followed by brave men through several wars, and our soldiers and even the boys and girls, who have read of the exploits of armies, have learned to respect the flag. On the ocean our flag floats at the masthead of American vessels wherever they sail, giving notice to all peoples of our Republic.

On all great national holidays also we put the flag forward and carry it at the head of marching men and children, and we decorate our houses and yards with the flag, showing that something very important leads us to this devotion to the flag.

We can afford to look more fully into the history of our national banner and at some of the reasons why our best people in the course of more than a hundred years have come to set such a high value upon this peculiar symbol of our life as a nation.

2. A time came during the Revolutionary War, in the year 1777, when it was felt necessary to agree upon a flag which should fittingly symbolize the new nation that was now well started in its great struggle for independence. Up to this time a variety of flags had been used in the army. The Concord flag of 1775 had the Latin motto "Vinci aut morire," which means "conquer or die," and it is said to be in the Bedford library today. Lossing speaks of a flag carried at Bunker Hill.

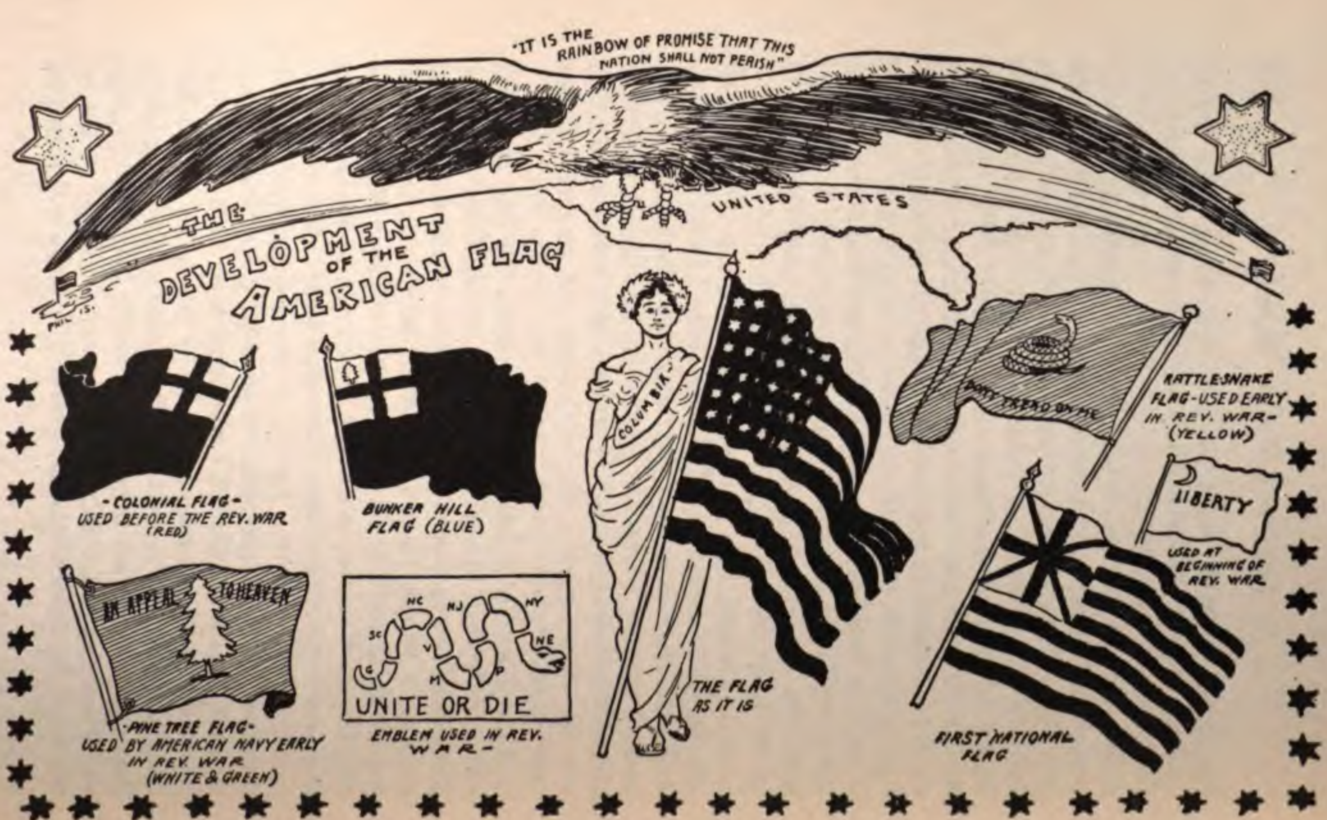
On January 2, 1776, Washington raised before his army at Cambridge a flag called the Great Union Flag, or Cambridge flag. It consisted of thirteen stripes, red and white with a white and red cross in a blue field. Several other flags were used previous to the adoption of the stars and stripes in 1777. One was used by John Paul Jones on the ship *Alfred*, with a rattlesnake encircling a pine tree, with the inscription "Don't tread on me"; and there were several others. Good colored pictures of these flags are given in *Our Nation's Flag*, by Smith.

On the fourteenth of June, 1777, a resolution was presented and adopted in Congress which prescribed that "the flag of the thirteen United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field, representing a new constellation." This important decision created the "stars and stripes" as our national flag.

It is not certainly known who suggested the stars. Tradition, confirmed by William J. Canby, a grandson of Betsy Ross, says that she made the first flag, and that she suggested the five-pointed star instead of the six-pointed. It is known that Mrs. Ross made flags for the vessels after the adoption of the resolution of Congress above named.

It is claimed that the earliest use of the star-spangled banner was in the battle of Fort Stanwix in August, 1777. John Fiske, the historian, says of it that "it was hastily extemporized out of a white shirt and an old blue jacket, and some strips of red cloth from the petticoat of a soldier's wife, and was the first American flag with stars and stripes that was ever hoisted."

John Paul Jones was the first to raise the flag on a war vessel. On the same day the flag was adopted by Congress, Jones was put in command of the *Ranger*, and on July 4th he made a trip to Portsmouth, New Hampshire, to raise the flag on his ship. The naval committee of Congress presented this flag to Paul Jones and he is reported as saying, "That flag and I are twins, born the same hour. We cannot be parted in life or death. So long as we can float we shall float together. If we must sink, we shall go down as one." In his later battles on the sea Jones made good these somewhat boastful words. Crossing the ocean he sailed up to the French fleet and demanded and obtained recognition as a commander of an American war vessel. This was in February, 1778, and was the first salute given by a foreign nation to our flag. In April of the same year his little vessel attacked


"IT IS THE RAINBOW OF PROMISE THAT THIS NATION SHALL NOT PERISH"
UNITED STATES
THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE AMERICAN FLAG
PHIL '15.
-COLONIAL FLAG- USED BEFORE THE REV. WAR (RED)
BUNKER HILL FLAG (BLUE)
COLUMBIA
THE FLAG AS IT IS
DON'T TREAD ON ME
RATTLESNAKE FLAG-USED EARLY IN REV. WAR- (YELLOW)
LIBERTY
USED AT BEGINNING OF REV. WAR
AN APPEAL TO HEAVEN
-PINE TREE FLAG- USED BY AMERICAN NAVY EARLY IN REV. WAR (WHITE & GREEN)
NC
NJ
NY
SC
NE
G
V
M
P
UNITE OR DIE
EMBLEM USED IN REV. WAR-
FIRST NATIONAL FLAG

the British man-of-war *Drake*, of superior strength, and in little more than an hour compelled her surrender, the first time a British man-of-war struck her flag to the stars and stripes.

3. The flag of 1777 had a circle of thirteen stars in a blue field. Congress in 1794 ordered that after May 1, 1795, the flag of the United States be fifteen stripes, alternate red and white, and that the union be fifteen stars, white in a blue field. This addition of stars and stripes was due to the admission of two new states into the Union, Vermont and Kentucky.

This arrangement could not be permanent, as new states were certain to be admitted from time to time from the west. Accordingly an act was passed by Congress in 1818 which has determined the character of our flag up to the present.

> SECTION I. That from and after the fourth day of July the flag of the United States be thirteen horizontal stripes alternate red and white, that the union have twenty stars [five new states having been admitted in the meantime], white in a blue field.
>
> SECTION II. That on the admission of every new state into the Union one star be added to the union of the flag, and that such addition shall take effect on the fourth of July next succeeding such admission.

For more than a hundred years new states have been added to the Union, till now the number is forty-eight.

The flag as now made up represents the origin of our independence in the struggle of the thirteen colonies, which constituted the first Union. All the states are represented also in the stars arranged in the blue field. The historical origin and growth of the flag are represented in it, and the remarkable expansion of our country in power and influence in the world typified.

4. During our history as a nation since the Declaration of Independence, the flag has witnessed many stirring scenes which have given it a warm place in the hearts of the people. One of these remarkable episodes is connected with Francis

Scott Key, when he was kept on board the British flagship the night of the attack upon Fort McHenry, September 13, 1814.

All during that eventful night, the 13th of September, the guns of the fleet poured a blazing shower of shot and shell upon the fortress. Key, standing on the deck of the English ship, in the midst of the excitement of the terrific bombardment, could see at intervals, by the glare of the rocket and the flash of the cannon, the American flag waving victoriously over its gallant defenders. It was a hot, persistent fight, taxing to the utmost the courage, endurance and patriotism of the soldiers. In the stirring enthusiasm of that supreme moment, and at the dawn's early light, where the stars and stripes waved in triumph above the smoke of battle, Key wrote the lines that are as deathless as the flag itself.

One of the most remarkable battle flag stories is that of John Paul Jones in the famous conflict between the British war vessel the *Serapis* and Jones's ship, the *Bon Homme Richard*, on September 23, 1779. In this naval battle Jones with an inferior vessel fought with desperate courage for more than three hours of a bright moonlight night. Jones managed to lash the two vessels together and then began the terrific conflict between those on deck, the British commander making desperate efforts to separate the vessels. Jones, whose vessel was filling with water and almost helpless, drove back the British in every attempt to cut the ropes and swing the vessels apart, and at last his crew boarded the *Serapis* and compelled her surrender. The British commander said afterward, "It was clearly evident that the American ship was dominated by a commanding will of the most unalterable resolution; the extraordinary and unheard-of desperate stubbornness of my adversary had so depressed the spirits of my people, that when more than two hundred had been slain or disabled out of the three hundred seventeen all told, I could not urge the remnant to further resistance."

Both vessels had been on fire several times, and the next morning Jones found that the *Bon Homme Richard* was sinking and transferred his men, prisoners and powder to the *Serapis*. The *Bon Homme Richard* was then turned adrift, and not long after she went down, with her flag flying. Jones writes, "As she plunged down by the head at the last, her taffrail momentarily rose in the air: so the very last vestige mortal eyes ever saw of the *Bon Homme Richard* was the defiant waving of her unconquered and unstricken flag as she went down. And as I had given them [the dead] the good old ship for their sepulcher, I now bequeathed to my immortal dead the flag they had so desperately defended for their winding sheet."

There are scores of thrilling stories of the flag, some of which are narrated in Colonel Nicholas Smith's *Our Nation's Flag in History and Incident.*

5. The Sons of the Revolution print the following resolutions that proper respect for the flag may be observed:

> It should not be hoisted before sunrise nor allowed to remain up after sunset.
>
> At sunset, spectators should stand at "attention" and uncover during the playing of the *Star-spangled Banner.* Military men are required to do so by regulation.
>
> When the national colors are passing on parade or in review, the spectator should, if walking, halt, and if sitting rise and stand "attention" and uncover.
>
> In placing the flag at half staff, it should first be hoisted to the top of the staff and then be lowered to position, and preliminary to lowering from half staff, it should first be raised to the top.

6. THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER

Oh! say, can you see by the dawn's early light
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming,
Whose broad stripes and bright stars through the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched, were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
Oh! say, does the star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes;
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?

Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines in the stream—
'Tis the star-spangled banner; oh! long may it wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion,
A home and a country should leave us no more?
Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution.
No refuge could save the hircling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave,
And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

Oh! thus be it ever when freemen shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war's desolation;
Blest with victory and peace, may the Heav'n-rescued land
Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation.
Then conquer we must when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto, "In God is our Trust."
And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

—FRANCIS SCOTT KEY

THE AMERICAN FLAG

When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.
She mingled with its gorgeous dyes
The milky baldric of the skies,
And striped its pure, celestial white
With streakings of the Morning's light;
Then from her mansion in the sun
She called her eagle bearer down,
And gave into his mighty hand
The symbol of her chosen land.

Majestic monarch of the cloud!
Who rear'st aloft thy eagle form
To hear the tempest trumpings loud,
And see the lightning lances driven,
When stride the warriors of the storm,
And rolls the thunder-drum of Heaven!

Child of the sun! to thee 'tis given
To guard the banner of the free!
To hover in the sulphur smoke,
To ward away the battle stroke
And bid its blendings shine afar
Like rainbows on the cloud of war,
The harbingers of victory.

Flag of the brave! thy folds shall fly
The sign of hope and triumph high;
When speaks the trumpet's signal tone,
And the long line comes gleaming on,
Ere yet the life-blood, warm and wet,
Has dimmed the glistening bayonet,
Each soldier's eye shall brightly turn
To where the sky-born glories burn;
And, as the springy steps advance,
Catch war and vengeance from the glance;
And when the cannon mouthings loud
Heave in wild wreaths the battle shroud,
And gory sabers rise and fall,
Like shoots of flame on midnight's pall—
Then shall the meteor glances glow,
And cowering foes shall sink beneath
Each gallant arm that strikes below
That lovely messenger of death!

Flag of the seas! on ocean's wave
Thy stars shall glitter o'er the brave;
When death, careering on the gale,
Sweeps darkly round the bellied sail,
And frighted waves rush wildly back
Before the broadside's reeling rack,
Each dying wanderer of the sea
Shall look at once to heaven and thee,
And smile to see the splendors fly
In triumph o'er his closing eye.

Flag of the free heart's hope and home!
  By angel's hands to valor given;
Thy stars have lit the welkin dome,
  And all thy hues were born in heaven.
Forever float that standard sheet!
  Where breathes the foe but falls before us

> With Freedom's soil beneath our feet,
> And Freedom's banner streaming o'er us?
> —Joseph Rodman Drake

Webster's closing words in his speech in reply to Hayne are as follows:

> Let my last, feeble, lingering glance behold the gorgeous ensign of the republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, its arms and trophies streaming in their original luster; not a stripe erased or polluted, not a single star obscured—bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as, What is all this worth? nor these other words of delusion and folly, Liberty first, and Union afterwards; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over sea and over land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart—Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!

7. The flags of England, France, and other countries of Europe have a much longer history than ours.

The royal standard of England also is a union flag, representing England, Scotland and Ireland. It is divided into four quarters, the first and third representing England, the second and fourth, Scotland and Ireland. This is a royal banner, symbolic of the sovereignty of the royal house.

> The flag of Englishmen is the banner of St. George, a red cross on a white field. There are legends relating how this saint rendered great aid and service to King Richard the Lion-Hearted, who placed himself and the English army under the saint's protection, and during the twelfth century St. George became the patron saint of England.

The white flag with the red cross of St. George has been the real flag of the English people since the twelfth century, and it is the distinctive flag of His Majesty's ships of war.

The flag of France begins its history back in the seventeenth century. The oriflamme of Charlemagne was given him by the pope in 800.

After many changes during the centuries, the French flag today is the tricolor, blue, white, red, three vertical bars of equal width. This flag was adopted in 1794 by the French revolutionary convention, and afterward by Napoleon I. Under this flag Napoleon gained his victories, and on the flag of each regiment he had inscribed the names of the battles in which it was victorious. He inspired a remarkable enthusiasm for the flag. When the republic was established in 1871, the tricolor came back, and it is now the national flag of France.

During the French Revolution the red flag was raised by the populace of Paris, and since then it has stood for anarchy — the overthrow of authority, the destruction of law and order. It may seem strange that people should select a flag to represent destruction.

In comparing our flag with those of other countries, Americans may feel a just pride in their national banner because of its origin in the spirit of liberty, because of the beautiful symbolism of its stars and stripes, and because it seems to us at least more beautiful than those of other nations.

The value and significance of the flag are set forth in the program for Flag Day in Chapter V.

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6. Type Study on Comparison in Burgoyne's Invasion

Suggestions as to Method

(a) The physical character of the country through which Burgoyne pursued his campaign should be shown and appreciated so as to understand his plan and the difficulties to be met.

(b) A larger map of North America may be studied also in order to grasp the entire campaign in its relations to Canada, to Howe's movements, to Washington, to New England and to the other states.

(c) A world-map is required to explain the results of Burgoyne's campaign upon America and Europe.

(d) The causal relation of succeeding events can be traced in all phases of this study.

(e) The various problems of a military campaign, as the physical conditions, the basis of supplies and the necessary coöperation of different armies, are well illustrated by a proper study of this great military undertaking.

Outline of Topics

1. The complexity of the military campaign, and its numerous relations.
2. The comparison and estimation of commanders. Human nature and its rivalries. Burgoyne.
3. Comparison of Burgoyne's campaign with that of Cornwallis in the south.
4. The results of this campaign and surrender on both sides in this country and in Europe.
5. Compared with other great battles of the world.

INTRODUCTION

In the study of the military phases of history, too much time is often given to campaigns. The causes leading to a war and the results which follow it are of greater importance than the marches and battles of the contending forces. Nevertheless, because of the progress in military science and the conditions governing the conduct of each war, at least one campaign should be studied. If a typical campaign is selected for such study details can be omitted from the study of the others. The time saved by this plan can be devoted to the study of the more permanent results of the war. Burgoyne's campaign makes an excellent type study because it is complete in itself, and because it shows so clearly the relation of local conditions to the success or failure of an enterprise of this sort.

At the time the campaign was planned the British troops occupied only New York and Newport. Sir Guy Carleton had attempted to invade New England by the way of Lake Champlain, but failed. Lake Champlain and the Hudson River formed the natural highway between New York and Canada. Could the British secure control of this region they then could cut off the New England colonies from the others. They could then conquer the New England colonies without opposition from the others. They would then subdue each of the other colonies in turn, and in this way complete the conquest of the country.

BURGOYNE'S INVASION

1. Burgoyne's campaign is a good example of the various unforeseen difficulties that arise in an extended series of military operations.

First the plan of the campaign was discussed by Burgoyne with the cabinet and military authorities in England, including the king. There was to be a coöperation of several armies. Howe at New York was to come up the Hudson to meet Burgoyne near Albany. Sir Guy Carleton was to give support from Canada. The forces of St. Leger and Sir John Johnson were to move down the Mohawk to join Burgoyne. In addition to these combinations, the Canada Indians came with Burgoyne, while the Tories and Iroquois were expected to help the British. Burgoyne also counted on the assistance of the loyalists of Vermont and New England as he moved south.

To secure the coöperation of all these widely scattered forces was no easy task. At the same time it was necessary to estimate accurately the opposing forces at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, at Fort Edward under Schuyler, at Fort Stanwix in the Mohawk Valley and what troops Washington might send up the Hudson Valley to assist the Americans. The Green Mountain boys and the New England militia might also make trouble, and some of the Iroquois were friendly to the Americans.

In advancing into the Lake Champlain country, too, Burgoyne was getting into a wilderness covered with heavy forests, where few provisions could be had and all the paths were well known to the Americans.

Until he reached the head of Lake Champlain Burgoyne had a swift and easy success, but as soon as he set out for Fort Edward, difficulties thickened. After reaching the Hudson he soon met disaster at Bennington and lost nearly a thousand men. At Fort Stanwix a second disaster broke up his combination there; Sir Guy Carleton failed to send troops to man Ticonderoga, and Burgoyne had to send back two thousand men to garrison Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

Then General Lincoln swept in behind the British and cut off their communication with the north, so that supplies dropped off. Then the Indians, offended at Burgoyne's advice not to massacre, deserted. Howe from the south failed to move north with a strong army to strengthen Burgoyne. Every one of his combinations had failed, and Burgoyne was left in the woods and hills of the upper Hudson without supplies and without help. The Americans, on the other hand, were growing daily in numbers and courage. The New England militia flocked in daily to Schuyler's and later to Gates's standard. Two great victories at Bennington and Fort Stanwix had proved to them that they could fight and whip the British and German regulars as well as Indians. Washington sent Arnold and Lincoln to reinforce Schuyler and General Morgan with five hundred men. Although there was much dispute and jealousy among the American commanders, as between Schuyler and Stark, and later between Gates and Arnold, as a whole the American commanders coöperated. Under these conditions the Americans grew daily stronger and Burgoyne's forces weaker, and the battles of Bemis Heights and Saratoga resulted in decided advantage to the Americans and were soon followed by Burgoyne's surrender.

2. An extensive campaign like that of Burgoyne is a very interesting study of human nature as exhibited by the generals.

The British cabinet tried to throw the blame for defeat upon Burgoyne, but an inquiry by the House of Commons brought out the fact that Lord George Germaine, at the head of the British war office, had failed to send the positive order to General Howe to move up the Hudson to aid Burgoyne. Sir Guy Carleton, who commanded the British forces in Canada, failed to aid Burgoyne as he might have done, probably from jealousy. Howe himself had gone off on a southern expedition, which made it impossible for him to coöperate with Burgoyne. St. Leger's expedition in the Mohawk Valley had been a disastrous failure, as was also the movement against Bennington. The British plan of coöperation had broken down at every point because of inefficiency or jealousy of commanders.

The American leaders had quarreled, and Congress had blundered in appointing Gates commander, instead of Schuyler; but in spite of these disagreements the American generals had coöperated successfully in every important movement. Washington at his distance had greatly aided the American generals with advice and troops. It must be said that at nearly every point where the British cabinet and generals had blundered, the American generals showed wisdom and skill.

The Indians by their bloodthirsty cruelties aroused the Americans to desperate effort, while their fickleness and faithlessness caused them to abandon the British at the critical moment.

3. Burgoyne's campaign in several important features bears resemblance to Cornwallis' later campaign that ended at Yorktown.

(*a*) At the beginning of Cornwallis' northward movement from South Carolina, in the Battle of Camden, he completely defeated the Americans under Gates and seemed to carry everything before him, as did Burgoyne at Ticonderoga and in the events that followed.

(*b*) But at King's Mountain a strong British force of 1,000 men was almost destroyed by the mountaineers of Tennessee and Kentucky and Carolina. This greatly resembles the defeat of the British by Stark at Bennington.

(*c*) Finally when Cornwallis pushed north to Yorktown, expecting aid from the British fleet at New York, his army was surrounded by the land troops on one side and aid was cut off from New York by the French fleet, and like Burgoyne he was compelled to surrender.

Here again coöperation on the part of the American generals with the French fleet brought victory, while failure to coöperate on the side of the British forces brought disaster. These were the two most important campaigns of the Revolution.

4. The result of Burgoyne's campaign and surrender was remarkable both in America and in Europe.

First, it raised the spirits of the Americans and made them think they should win their independence. The British armies, however, were disheartened and checked in their movements. In England the loss of a whole army captured by the Americans produced a profound impression, and Parliament met and granted to the Americans all their demands except independence. More important still, France, under the wise diplomacy of Franklin, recognized the United States, and war was declared between France and England. Spain soon followed France, and Holland was drawn in later. Nearly the whole of Europe combined against England, and the future outcome of the war was largely due to this union with France and the other states of Europe.

5. On account of its far-reaching effects upon Europe and America, the battle at Saratoga and the surrender of Burgoyne have been classed among the great battles of the world's history, like Marathon, Crecy, Tours, Waterloo and Gettysburg.

In the number of men engaged Saratoga was small relatively, but in respect to the principles at stake and the political results that came of the defeat of Burgoyne it must rank with the great events of world history.

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Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Vol. V.

7. Type Study on the Louisiana Purchase

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) A good historical map of North America showing the Louisiana Purchase in contrast with the remaining portions of the United States is indispensable.

(*b*) A large map of Europe showing France, Spain and England with a comparison of these countries with the United States, and giving the distances across the Atlantic should be studied.

(*c*) A brief explanation of the political situation in Europe and the great conflict between Napoleon and England and the other powers may be given. Also some further discussion of Jefferson's double attitude on the constitution question, owing to his narrow interpretation of constitutional powers.

(*d*) A colored historical map showing the later purchases and accessions of territory will enable children to compare them as to size and location.

(*e*) Lewis and Clark's expedition, like the expeditions of Pike and Fremont, should be traced out and marked on a blackboard map.

(*f*) If the teacher presents the facts orally to children, he needs a clear, definite style and a graphic manner, with constant use of the blackboard for sketching while presenting the facts. Use also large wall maps.

(*g*) The children should be trained to narrate the topics with fulness and clearness, topic by topic, and with very little help from the teacher by questions.

Outline of Topics

1. The Louisiana Territory. Its extent and location.
2. History and causes leading up to the purchase.
3. The bargain between Napoleon and Jefferson.
4. Size and importance of the territory as compared with the original thirteen colonies and the Northwest Territory.
5. Exploration by Lewis and Clark.
6. Pike and Fremont.
7. Comparison with our later extensions of territory: Texas, Mexico, Florida, Oregon, Alaska, Hawaii, and the Philippines.
8. Comparisons with territory of England, Russia, etc.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

1. One of the great events in the history of the United States was the purchase of Louisiana in 1803. This purchase, though indefinite in its western boundaries, about doubled the size of the United States and at the same time opened up a free way for our pioneers to push across the Mississippi River and later to California and the Pacific. The territory thus purchased included all the great states on the west bank of the Mississippi from Louisiana to Minnesota

and westward to the crests of the Rocky Mountains. Some of our best historians have claimed that it included Texas.

At the time of the purchase this region had a very small population, mostly in Louisiana at or near New Orleans, about 50,000 in all, including a few French villages like St. Louis farther up the river. This region, as a whole, was but little known, a few exploring parties and trappers having passed across its plains or along its river courses. The greater part of it was wholly unknown.

2. The causes leading up to the purchase of Louisiana include a series of great events involving the United States and several of the great nations of Europe.

The French, originally, by pushing west along the Great Lakes and south along the Mississippi River, had owned and occupied by forts and settlements the whole eastern half of the great valley. But when the French lost Canada in 1760 the English naturally came into possession of all this territory east of the Mississippi except Florida and New Orleans.

With the close of the Revolution the thirteen colonies came to the ownership of the Northwest territory, and England in turn was shut out. By the beginning of the nineteenth century (1800), the westward-pushing pioneers had forced their way into the Ohio valley and were building up strong settlements (the basis for new states) from Alabama to Illinois. As these rugged and powerful pioneers moved westward, driving back the fierce Indian tribes, they were certain soon to cross the Mississippi into the still greater west. Being shut out by the Alleghany Mountains from the eastern states, and finding it almost impossible to ship their heavy products over the long, rough mountain roads to eastern markets, they turned their eyes toward the mouth of the Mississippi River as the natural and only outlet for their products. It was very easy to load flatboats with bacon, grain, tobacco, and whiskey and send them floating down the rivers to New Orleans, whence they found their way in ships to the eastern cities, to Europe and the West Indies. The conviction grew powerful among the westerners that they must have the mouth of the Mississippi and secure a safe market in that direction for their goods.

But Spain owned New Orleans and all the Louisiana country, and all the region west of the Mississippi. Trouble and war were almost certain to arise between the United States and any country that held the mouth of the Mississippi. At this time Spain was one of the powerful nations of Europe, owning Florida, Louisiana, Mexico and nearly all of South America except Brazil.

But in 1803, Spain had traded Louisiana to France, and Napoleon, the most powerful ruler in Europe, was planning to send out armies and settlers to build up a great French province in Louisiana. With his remarkable energy and success, Napoleon threatened to destroy the prospects of the western settlements.

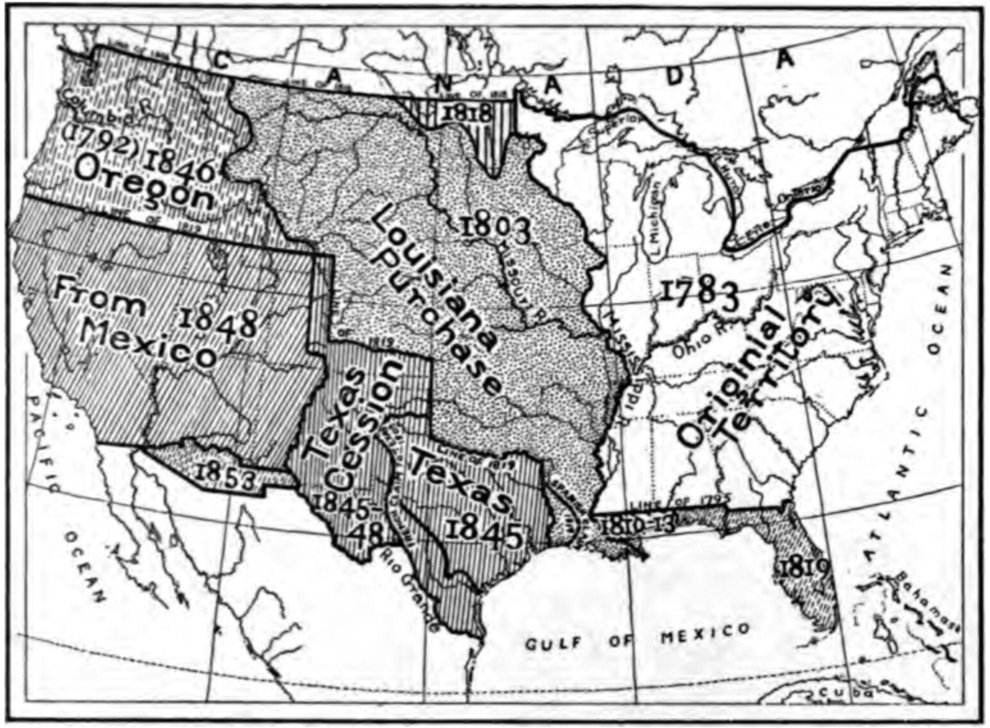
3. At this critical moment came an unexpected opportunity to purchase the Louisiana territory for the United States. In the midst of his plans for building up a powerful French empire in Louisiana, Napoleon found that a war with England was rapidly approaching. Napoleon was suddenly called upon to make great preparations for an invasion of England, and this required large expenditures. At the same time a strong army sent to San Domingo to suppress a rebellion of the negroes led by Toussaint was almost destroyed by yellow fever and by Toussaint's success. This strongly suggested to Napoleon the difficulty of sending armies to America.

In the meantime President Jefferson had sent envoys to Napoleon to try to purchase New Orleans so as to secure the mouth of the Mississippi for the United States. For a long time the American envoys could make no headway. But pressed by his threatened war, Napoleon suddenly changed his plans and suggested that he would sell New Orleans. Livingston and Monroe, our envoys in France, were authorized to offer two million dollars for New Orleans, but they were completely surprised by an offer of Napoleon to sell the whole of Louisiana for twenty millions. This was more than they had bargained for and more than they wanted. They didn't know what they could do with such an immense territory. It would be like an elephant on their hands; it would at once double the size of the United States. Besides, Jefferson did not believe that he had any right to purchase new territory according to the constitution. As a close-construction Democrat he did not think that a president should do anything not expressly granted by the constitution.

Jefferson knew also that the people of the United States, and especially the westerners, were determined to have the mouth of the Mississippi River even if they had to go to war for it. Now was the chance to get it without war, a chance that might never occur again in the lifetime of the nation. The American envoys were considering these things, and they gradually enlarged their minds to take in the bigness of this purchase. Finally, in April, 1803, they decided to take the responsibility and completed the agreement with Napoleon to purchase Louisiana for about fifteen million dollars. It may almost be said that Napoleon forced them to take the whole of Louisiana, although neither the envoys nor the President desired it. This shows how little even great statesmen at that time appreciated the value of the Louisiana territory. Napoleon said that it would be of no advantage for him to own the rest of Louisiana unless he controlled the mouth of the Mississippi River.

When the news of the purchase reached America, it aroused much excitement and discussion. The President approved of it, although contrary to his principles. Congress passed a bill ratifying the purchase and appropriating the necessary money. In November, 1803, the transfer from the French to the United States was formally made at New Orleans and the American flag was raised. The taxable property of this region today is valued at many hundreds of times the purchase price.

4. This new territory contained nearly a million square miles, or about three times as much as the original thirteen colonies. The Northwest Territory, including the five states north of the Ohio River, which fell to the United States at



ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY BY THE UNITED STATES the close of the Revolution included about one-fourth as much territory as the Louisiana territory, or 248,000 square miles. At the present time the Louisiana territory, comprising the major part of thirteen states, has a population of 15,000,000, or about three times the population of the United States in 1803, the time of the purchase. What its population may be in another hundred years we can hardly estimate.

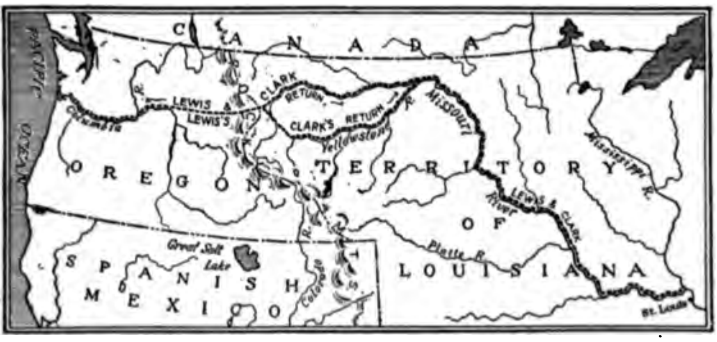
The historical influence of this vast cession of territory upon the Union and its future growth makes this purchase one of the most important events in American history. The whole Mississippi Valley was now destined to be occupied by one nation. Even now more than half the population of the United States is found in this valley. After taking possession of the country as far as the Rocky Mountains, it was almost certain that this vigorous Yankee race would push on to the Pacific shores and thus occupy the whole territory now contained in the United States. There was no race to the south or to the north that could check the westward march of this strong people.

5. As soon as the purchase had been settled, President Jefferson formed a plan for exploring this vast unknown country, which had so suddenly and unexpectedly fallen to our share. Two young men, friends of the President, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark (a younger brother of George Rogers Clark), were put in joint command of a small exploring party, which was to make its way up the Missouri River to the mountains, and then, crossing them, find a route to the Pacific Ocean. They were to report to the government upon the rivers and mountains, the best routes for traffic, the character of the Indian tribes, the natural products, minerals and wild animals of the region. In the original party there were twenty-eight, fourteen being soldiers of the regular army. They were carefully picked men. Besides, there were nine boatmen and some soldiers who were to go as far as the Mandan tribes.

They equipped themselves with three boats, the longest being a keel boat fifty-five feet in length and supplied with twenty-two oars and a mast for a sail.

Early in the spring of 1804 they started from St. Louis and pushed up against the swift current of the Missouri River which made their journey slow and laborious. In Missouri they found the country heavily wooded, but turning northward they came into the more open country where larger game abounded. Two French voyageurs were with them to act as hunters and as interpreters with the Indians. At Council Bluffs they met representatives of some of the Indian tribes and tried to explain to them the transfer of control of this whole country to the United States government.

By the opening of the winter they came into the country of the Mandan Indians in Dakota, built log huts on an island in the river, hunted during the winter months and made preparations for a further spring journey.



ROUTES OF LEWIS AND CLARK
They explored an empire and opened the way to settlement

The next spring they followed the Missouri to the great falls, pushed up through the deep canyon called "the gate of the mountains," and found themselves in the midst of the wilderness of mountains at the headwaters of the Missouri. Game was scarce, the Indians were gone and the passage over the main range was extremely difficult. Beyond the range they found it impossible to pass down the branch of the Columbia because of falls, rapids and canyons. They turned back across the range followed the valley northward a hundred miles and finally broke a way across the range through snow and cold, to a stream down which they were able to descend in boats. They came out of the mountains on the west side in a haggard, half-starved condition. But fish and food were now plenty, the Indians friendly, and they pushed down to the Columbia and on to the coast.

The second winter they spent near the ocean in a camp built on the banks of the Columbia, suffering much from the rainy weather and lack of nourishing food. But they had accomplished the great purpose of their journey, explored a large area of absolutely unknown country and were now ready to return.

Not finding an English ship with supplies as they expected, they turned back poorly furnished for the return journey across the mountains and plains. But the Indians of the Columbia treated them well and supplied them with provisions and horses, and they reached the mountains before cold weather set in. From their previous experience they were able to shorten their trip across the mountains. Just east of the mountains they had some exciting adventures with the Indians and grizzly bears. One division of the party went down the Missouri in boats, the other went down the Yellowstone, and they came together at the junction of the two rivers.

From this point the journey down the Missouri was easy and rapid, and they reached St. Louis without serious difficulty. They had lost one man on the way. In spite of exposure, danger, and hardships of all kinds, the men had kept well. For nearly two years the party of Lewis and Clark had not been heard from, and many believed that all of them had perished.

They brought back full and interesting reports of the country, which were furnished to Congress and the President. They had traveled about 9,000 miles through a country almost completely unknown, and had awakened a great interest in these new possessions.

This was the first of a series of exploring trips designed to make known the geography and resources of the country.

6. Zebulon Pike made a boat voyage up the upper Mississippi in 1805 to its sources in the lakes and made an interesting report to the government. The next year he led a small company up the Missouri and across the plains till Pike's Peak was first seen and located, and the sources of the Arkansas River traced into the mountains. The next spring he moved down into what is now New Mexico, was arrested and held prisoner for invading Mexican territory with an armed force, but was later released.

The great pathfinder of the Rocky Mountains was John C. Fremont, who made his first expedition to the Rocky Mountains in 1842. On a second trip he passed across the Rockies, explored Salt Lake, traveled northwest to the Columbia River, returned south, and during the winter crossed the snow-covered Sierra Nevada Mountains into central California. During the war with Mexico he raised a force in California and won it for the United States. Later he traveled and explored the rivers and passes of the Rocky Mountains to find the best routes of travel and traffic between the east and the west. His explorations were largely beyond the Louisiana Purchase but included this region also.

These were a few of the pioneer explorers who traveled with small parties across the plains and mountains, enduring remarkable hardships and reporting to the government and the American people the wonders of this vast new land.

7. The purchase of Louisiana was followed by other important purchases of territory which have continued to enlarge the land area of the United States. In 1819, Florida, which had been owned by Spain and had caused the United States much trouble by reason of Indian attacks, and also by helping England as a basis for carrying on the war of 1812, was purchased by the United States for five million dollars. This rounded out our territory in that direction, and since then Florida has become a flourishing state, much visited by northern people as a place for winter residence.

Texas, which had become an independent state by revolting against Mexico, was admitted to the union as a state in

1845. The rapid growth of Texas after the Civil War and especially in the last twenty years indicates that it will soon be one of the leading states in wealth and population.

Only a year later, 1846, the dispute about Oregon (between England and the United States) was settled by extending the old line of 49 degrees westward to the Pacific. The Oregon country has since developed into the prosperous states of Washington and Oregon, and parts of other states.

The war with Mexico, which was largely undertaken for winning from Mexico the lands of the southwest, ended in the cession of a very large tract of land to the United States, including California and New Mexico, and in fact all the land west of the Louisiana purchase and south of Oregon. For this region the United States also paid Mexico fifteen millions, besides important claims amounting to three millions. Thus the present boundaries (including the Gadsden purchase) were established. The westward movement of the people and their occupation of all the territory now in the United States were thus provided for.

In 1867, the United States government, under the leadership of Secretary Seward, purchased from Russia the Alaskan Territory for $7,200,000. It contained an area of 591,000 square miles, or more than one-half as much as the Louisiana Purchase. Alaska also in recent years has developed unexpected wealth in its coal and other minerals, its forests and its fisheries. In December, 1898, at the close of the war with Spain, the United States by the payment of twenty million dollars received full possession of Porto Rico and the Spanish Islands of the West Indies, the island of Guam in the Pacific (one of the Ladrones), and the Philippines.

During the Spanish War, the Hawaiian Islands desired protection and annexation to the United States and were also taken into the possession of the Union.

Thus the long series of additions to our territory stretches out through our history, and shows the aggressive character of our people in their westward movement.

8. The area of continental United States (not including Alaska) is 3,026,789 square miles. The area of the United States and all of its possessions is 3,743,318 square miles, and the population, in 1910, 102,137,078.

The nations that have a larger area and population than the United States are as follows: the British Empire, with 11,433,283 square miles and a population of 392,846,835; the Russian Empire, 8,647,657 square miles, population 146,796,600; China, 4,277,170 square miles, population 433,553,000.

The United States has the advantage of having its whole population grouped together in one country, and that very favorably located in the temperate zone.

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The Making of the Great West. Drake. Scribners.

Side Lights of American History. Elson. Macmillan Co.

Lewis and Clark. Lighton. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Making of the Nation. Walker. Scribners.

Stories of American Progress. Wright. Scribners.

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8. Type Study on Andrew Jackson

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) The early life of Jackson offers a good opportunity to collect pictures, illustrative material, maps, and relics of pioneer life. Pictures of Indian life, dress and villages, canoes and modes of travel, palisaded forts, blockhouses, buffalo hunting, and Indian chiefs, etc.

(*b*) Study the maps to locate the Indian tribes of the southwest, and the campaigns.

(*c*) Compare Jackson more fully with the men of the southwest, as Sevier and Robertson, Davy Crockett, Daniel Boone, and Indian chiefs, as Tecumseh, Pontiac, etc.

(*d*) Collect interesting stories of Indian life and stories of captivity among the Indians, and of exploits in Indian warfare.

(*e*) This study is a good opportunity to learn to judge strong and weak points in personal character, and to see how good and evil are mixed sometimes in the same man.

(*f*) The comparisons give a good chance to review previous stories of Indian warfare and struggle and to get a glimpse of the long and bitter warfare that runs through our history in our relations with the native tribes.

Outline of Topics

1. Jackson's boyhood and his personal traits.
2. Jackson as solicitor and prosecutor in the western counties of Tennessee.
3. In Congress; judge and general.
4. Private life; dueling.
5. First expedition in the war of 1812.
6. Campaign against the Creeks.
7. The Battle of New Orleans.
8. Jackson a candidate for the presidency.
9. His merits and faults as president.
10. Comparison with other leaders and presidents.

ANDREW JACKSON

1. The parents of Andrew Jackson were Scotch-Irish settlers who came over from Ireland in 1765, and located in a Scotch-Irish settlement called the Waxhaus on the boundary between North and South Carolina. His father died about the time of his birth. He grew up in the wilderness among rough backwoodsmen, with very little education, either from books or schools.

When a boy, during the Revolution, he received a wound on the head from the saber of a British officer whose boots he refused to black, and bore the scar from it for the rest of his life. Both of his older brothers met their death in the war, and his mother died while on a journey to Charleston to care for prisoners there. These things caused him to entertain a most bitter hatred for the English for the rest of his life.

Andrew grew up a rather shiftless, mischievous boy, careless, and fond of horse racing and betting. He worked for a while at the saddler's trade, and then turned to the study of the law, as was the fashion at that time for the young men who cared to improve themselves intellectually. He was a poor student and learned far less about the law than about outdoor sports, for he was very proficient at all of those which required quickness, agility, and nerve, becoming a fine horseman and a dead shot. He had many of the faults of the rough pioneers among whom he lived. He frequently quarreled and fought, but he always had a hatred of debt and a deep reverence for women, in which things he rose above the standard of his associates. He learned to love those who befriended him, and like the Indians he "never forgave and never forgot" either an injury or a kindness. Many of the faults and mistakes of his later life, after he became famous and powerful, were due to this simple backwoods point of view, which prevented him from distinguishing, in those who opposed him, what was personal opposition and what was due merely to disbelief in his policies. Everything was personal to him, and he was always faithful to his friends and dangerous to his enemies. He had a wonderfully strong will, as well as violent passions. It is said that some of his playmates, when a boy, gave him a gun, loaded

BIRTHPLACE OF ANDREW JACKSON

to the muzzle, to fire. As was expected, the gun kicked him over, but he at once sprang to his feet in a rage and shouted, "If anyone laughs I'll kill him." The fun was spoiled, for no one dared to laugh.

2. When twenty-one years old, he was given a position which enabled him to exercise his peculiar talents. He was appointed solicitor, or public prosecutor, of the western counties of North Carolina, which later became the state of Tennessee. Here he found conditions even more primitive than in the Waxhaus. Fights, and lawsuits, which often grew out of fights, were very common among the pioneers, and a firm hand was needed. The burden of keeping order and of enforcing the payment of debts fell largely on the solicitor. Jackson's knowledge of the law was faulty, but he had a tremendous dominating will and desperate courage, and he never turned aside from what he set out to do. When the other officers of the law were afraid to arrest a dangerous character, Jackson arrested the man himself. He made many friends and many enemies, and often had to fight with the latter. He performed his work as public prosecutor so well that when certain intruders on Indian lands had been giving trouble, the governor of the state said, "Let the district attorney, Mr. Jackson, be informed. He will be certain to do his duty, and the offenders will be punished." At the end of ten years he had accumulated a considerable estate, mostly in land.

3. Tennessee was admitted to the union as a state in 1796. Jackson was a member of the convention which framed the state constitution, and there is a tradition that he proposed the name of the state. He was elected the first federal representative from the state, and, a year later, when one of the senators from Tennessee was expelled, Jackson was appointed to fill his place. In 1798 he resigned, for it seems that he did not care for political life. At this time Albert Gallatin, who was in Congress with Jackson, describes him as "a tall, lank, uncouth-looking personage, with long locks of hair hanging over his face, and a cue down his back tied in an

eel-skin; his dress singular, his manner and deportment that of a rough backwoodsman."

For six years after his experience in Congress, Jackson was a judge in Tennessee, but in 1804 he resigned this position also. Some time before his resignation he had been elected major-general of the militia of the state.

4. Between 1804 and 1813 he took no part in public affairs, but was engaged in planting and in business. It was during this time that he fought his famous duel with John Dickinson, a young man of prominence in the state, who was a wonderfully quick shot and had a great reputation as a duelist. Jackson appeared on the morning of the duel clad in a huge overcoat. At the signal Jackson allowed his opponent to fire first, for he knew that Dickinson was the quicker shot and feared that the impact of the bullet would spoil his own aim. Dickinson hit the spot in the overcoat under which he thought Jackson's heart was beating, but owing to the thinness of his body, Jackson was not killed, although seriously injured. He slowly took aim, fired, and killed his man.

5. Soon after the opening of the war of 1812, Jackson offered his services, together with those of 2,500 volunteers from Tennessee, to the government. He was ordered to march south, probably for the purpose of reinforcing New Orleans. He marched to Natchez, Mississippi, where he waited for further orders. After a long delay he received word that his command was no longer needed, and was to be disbanded. No provision was made for getting the men home or paying their expenses on the way. Jackson characteristically refused to leave his men in the lurch, and promptly marched home instead of obeying orders and disbanding them. He pledged his own credit for the necessary supplies. These expenses were later paid to him by the government. His action was sustained by the state, and won him the devotion of his men. It was during the hardships of this campaign that the soldiers remarked that General Jackson was "as tough as hickory," and he received the nickname "Old Hickory."

6. A short time after his return General Jackson was shot through the shoulder in a tavern brawl, and was lying ill from a serious wound when he received orders to march again. Tecumseh, the famous Indian chief and orator of the northwest, had been trying for years to unite all the red men of the continent against the whites in a last desperate effort to stop the advance of white civilization. He had succeeded in inducing part of the Creek Indians of the south to take the war path. They had attacked Fort Mims in Alabama, and massacred there more than five hundred people.

Jackson marched against the hostile Creeks or "Red Sticks" while still ill from his wounds. In addition to this he was suffering from acute indigestion, but his will seemed strong enough to conquer any amount of suffering and difficulty. The arrangements for supplying his troops with provisions were faulty, and the men became hungry and mutinous. Part of the troops were state militia, and part volunteers. When the militia mutinied, and started to return to Tennessee, the general drove them back into camp with the volunteers, and later, when the volunteers mutinied, he placed himself at the head of the militia across their path and made them return to their duty. Finally, when almost the whole army started for home, he with his officers and only a few men placed himself before them and swore that he would shoot the first man that stirred farther. They yielded and returned to the camp. The governor of the state advised him to return, but he refused to give up.

After making several raids into the Indian country, and receiving reinforcements, he attacked the main body of the Red Sticks, who were fortified in a bend of the Tallapoosa River, at a place called Tohopeka by the Indians and the Horseshoe by the whites, and thoroughly defeated them. This battle broke down the resistance of the Creeks, and Jackson returned home after eight months in the wilderness, now the most popular man in Tennessee.

7. When General William Henry Harrison resigned his commission, Jackson was appointed major-general in the

United States army. He was put in command of the southern district, including Mobile and New Orleans. His headquarters were at Mobile. Here he heard that the British were using Pensacola, Florida, as a base for operations against the United States, and asked permission of the war department to proceed against them. Receiving no reply, he made a raid into Florida, in which he captured Pensacola, and returned to Mobile, where he received a letter from the Secretary of War forbidding the expedition.

He now received word that the English fleet and army, commanded by Sir Edward Pakenham, intended to attack New Orleans. He hastened thither and found that no preparations had been made for an attack. He was uncertain whether they would come up the Mississippi by way of Lake Pontchartrain or across Lake Borgne. They took the route across Lake Borgne and advanced by way of a bayou to a plain south of the city. This plain was bounded on one side by the river, on the other by a dense cypress swamp, and is at most places about a mile wide. There were no defences on this plain between the city and the English army, which was about six miles away.

Jackson showed great energy, collected all the troops available and threw them between the city and the enemy. His army was made up for the most part of militia and volunteers, hardy frontiersmen who knew little of the discipline of a regular army, but who were active, alert, and fine riflemen. Many of them, however, were not supplied with suitable arms. The English army was made up of Wellington's veterans, who were supposed to be invincible.

On the first night after the English had landed, Jackson made a night attack, trying to "drive them from the American soil" at once. This conflict was indecisive, but it made the English more cautious, and their consequent delay gave the Americans time to intrench themselves. After a week and a half of skirmishing, Pakenham, the English general, had completed his preparations and advanced. Jackson had drawn up his lines at the narrowest part of the plain, where an old canal or ditch ran across from the river to the swamp. Behind this he threw up a parapet made mostly of cotton bales.

The British advanced bravely but were mowed down by the rifles of the frontiersmen. Pakenham was killed trying to rally his men. The English fled, leaving heaps of slain on the field. About two thousand of the British were killed or wounded and five hundred were prisoners. The Americans lost eight killed, and thirteen were wounded.

THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS
General Jackson directing his forces

The Battle of New Orleans was fought after the treaty of peace had been signed, but before the news of it had reached the United States. Jackson continued to keep the city under martial law until he heard through official channels that the war was over. When one of the prominent citizens protested against such action, Jackson promptly arrested him. When the district judge issued a writ of habeas corpus for the prisoner, Jackson also arrested him, for which the judge later fined him a thousand dollars.

8. When Florida was ceded to the United States, President Monroe made Jackson governor of the territory, but his health was poor and after a short time he resigned and returned to his home plantation, The Hermitage, where he meant to spend the rest of his days in peace. But his military exploits had made him a national hero, and on account of his great popularity he was drawn into politics through the efforts of some of his friends. In 1823 he was elected to the Senate. In 1824 he was a presidential candidate. Although he had lived most of his life in the backwoods, it was said of him that "his bearing was more presidential" than that of any other candidate. He received more electoral votes than any other candidate, but not a majority. The House of Representatives elected John Quincy Adams, who had the next highest number of votes, instead of Jackson. In 1828 he was again candidate. He was called the people's candidate. In this campaign every means was used by Jackson's opponent to make him appear disreputable and a tyrant; his duel with Dickinson and his other fights were dug up, and handbills were circulated with pictures of coffins bearing the names of the men whom Jackson had executed. In spite of these things he was elected by an overwhelming majority.

ANDREW JACKSON

9. As president he was distinguished by the same traits which he had shown as a general. By his prompt and energetic action he saved the union from danger. South Carolina objected to the tariff laws, and threatened to secede if they were enforced. At a banquet given by southerners where it was expected that because he was a native of South Carolina he would favor such a policy, he proposed the toast: "Our Federal Union; it must be preserved." He told one man from South Carolina that "if a single drop of blood shall be shed there in opposition to the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man I can lay my hand on upon the first tree I can reach." His energetic measures averted the danger.

Jackson's defective understanding of politics and political economy, together with his decisiveness and absolute confidence in his own judgment, led him to make many mistakes. His belief in what he called rotation of office led him to introduce the "spoils system" into our politics, which has since been so serious an evil. He destroyed the Bank of the United States which Alexander Hamilton had organized, and which had been a great financial aid to the country. But Jackson believed that it used its great power to favor the moneyed classes, and was therefore a menace to free government. He took other ill-advised financial measures which brought about the panic of 1837, which, however, did not break out until just after the close of his second administration.

10. Jackson's training and character were that of the backwoods pioneer and Indian fighter. He belongs to that group of men who migrated into the wilds west of the Alleghanies and, with boundless determination and force of will, conquered the wilderness, subdued the western law-breakers, and broke the power of the fierce Indian tribes that resisted so desperately the progress of the whites.

Jackson belongs to the class of men like Sevier of Tennessee, Boone of Kentucky, George Rogers Clark, Anthony Wayne, Nathaniel Bacon, who were successful Indian fighters.

Other great leaders, like Washington and William Henry Harrison, also engaged in desperate encounters with the Indians, many of which resulted in victories for the Indians.

Still further back in our history, Miles Standish, John Smith, Champlain, Frontenac and La Salle engaged in these fierce conflicts on the frontier, and later, in the nineteenth century, Indian troubles resulted in battles fiercely fought. One of the last of these was that in which General Custer and his men were slain. Of all these hardy western fighters, Jackson stands out as one of the most desperate and determined in character.

As President, Jackson is in striking contrast to the presidents who preceded him. John Quincy Adams, Madison, Monroe, Jefferson and Adams were scholarly men of superior education and culture, and of broad political experience, but Jackson was a frontiersman who brought the spirit of the western democracy into the White House. He was extremely popular with the common people.

THE JACKSON STATUE AT NEW ORLEANS

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9. Type Study on Steamboat Traffic on the Mississippi River

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) Study a large map of the Mississippi River with its tributary streams.

(*b*) Make a map of the great valley, showing the navigable rivers or parts of rivers used for boating.

(*c*) Collect pictures of river steamboats and wharves, flatboats, barges, keel boats and lumber rafts.

(*d*) Recall the story of Lincoln's trip to New Orleans on a flatboat. Recall the exploring voyages of the early French adventurers.

(*e*) The life of Fulton and Mark Twain's *Life on the Mississippi* are interesting reference readings.

(*f*) Give frequent rapid drills on the larger rivers and cities of the Mississippi Valley.

(*g*) Notice the railroad map of the United States and observe how the great trunk lines run parallel with the rivers, as the Illinois Central from Dubuque to New Orleans; the Baltimore & Ohio, etc.

(*h*) Compare the development of steamship traffic on the Great Lakes and the Mississippi. Mark the similarities and contrasts. Compare the products shipped on the rivers with those on the lakes.

(*i*) Examine the rivers along the Atlantic seaboard and note how far they are navigable. The same for rivers on the Pacific coast.

(*j*) Show pictures of large ocean steamers and compare them with the largest river boats.

Outline of Topics

1. The French explorers.
2. English pioneers on the Ohio and Mississippi. Flatboats and keel boats.
3. Nicholas Roosevelt's first voyage down the Mississippi River on a flatboat.
4. The building of the *New Orleans*.
5. Voyage of the first steamer *New Orleans* to Louisville.
6. Running over the falls at Louisville.

7. Remainder of the trip to New Orleans—wood supply—earthquakes.

8. The *Enterprise* and other steamboats. Growth of traffic by steamboats. Mark Twain's description of river traffic, lumber rafts.

9. Steamboating at its best between 1850 and 1860. Luxurious equipment of the large steamboats.

10. Dangers in steamboating, snags, racing.

11. Decline of steamboat traffic.

12. Proposed improvement of the Mississippi. Deep waterways.

13. Steam vessels on the Great Lakes.

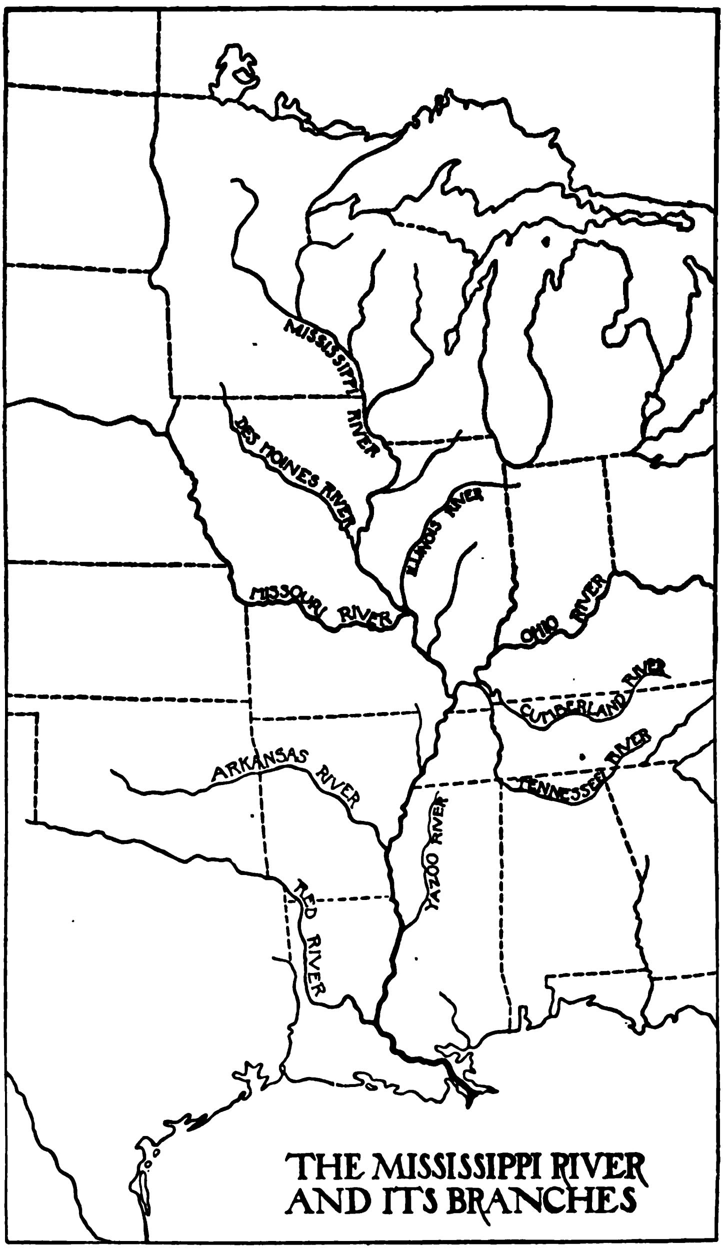
14. Steamships on the ocean.

STEAMBOAT TRAFFIC ON THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

1. The Mississippi River, with the Ohio, Missouri and other navigable streams that flow into it, in all the earlier periods of American history was the great highway of travel and traffic.

The earliest explorers of the middle west made their way in canoes along the lakes and down the tributary streams to the Mississippi. Joliet and Marquette, La Salle and Hennepin traversed these boundless regions along the winding courses of the rivers, much as the Indians in their canoes had done in the ages preceding. For nearly a hundred years more the French continued to send out their explorers, priests and fur-traders and to make scattered settlements along the streams from the lakes to the mouth of the Mississippi. The journey up these rivers on the return trip from the south was long and toilsome, yet there was no other way but by strength of arm to force the canoes and boats against the stream.

2. As the sturdy English settlers overflowed the ridges of the Alleghanies and descended into the rich forest lands of Tennessee, Kentucky and Ohio, they loaded their household goods in keel boats and flatboats, or broad horns, as they were called, and floated down stream to Marietta, Cincinnati and Nashville or to places still farther west. Fierce battles were



THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER AND ITS BRANCHES

fought with lurking savages along the shore, but the tide of settlement still flowed on in spite of dangers and hardships.

The Ohio River was the main line of westward movement, and from its banks the settlements spread out north and south. The first task of the pioneers was to cut down the trees and to build log houses or in many cases only a three-faced camp. Then the forests were cleared and fields planted to corn, beans and pumpkins. Soon followed barns and stables, horses, cattle and pigs, sheep and chickens. The pioneers had hardly become well settled upon their farms before they found a surplus of products, corn, pork, whiskey and hides. The rivers furnished almost the only route by which they could send these products to market.

It soon became the custom of the backwoodsmen to build a flatboat, load it with flour, bacon or grain and send it down the river to New Orleans. The cumbersome barges were about one hundred feet long and thirty feet wide, and could carry a large cargo of many tons. But they were too heavy to drive back up the stream, and when New Orleans was reached, the farm produce was sold and the flatboat broken up for lumber.

The keel boats, however, were long narrow boats pointed and decked at both ends and not only carried passengers and goods down the river, but were forced up stream by the strong arms of the keel men. The keel boats, loaded with such goods as were needed by the settlers, were poled up the streams by two sets of men, one set on each side of the boat. Each boatman placed the lower end of a long pole in the mud-bottom of the river and then bracing the other end against his shoulder walked steadily toward the stern of the boat. The keel boatmen became famous for their muscular power and fighting qualities. In the battle of New Orleans under Jackson, they did good service against the English.

3. The coming of the steamboat on the Ohio and Mississippi waters soon produced a marked change. Robert Fulton had made the first successful steamboat trip on the Hudson in 1807. After this success on the Hudson, Fulton wrote to

his friend Barlow, "It [the steamboat] will give a cheap and quick conveyance of merchandise on the Mississippi, Missouri, and other great rivers which are now laying open their treasures to the enterprise of our countrymen."

In order to find out whether steamboats would be able to make headway with and against the swift currents of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, Fulton and his friend Livingstone sent Nicholas J. Roosevelt to Pittsburgh in 1809 to make a voyage down the river. He fitted up a flatboat, and for six months, with his wife and a small crew of men, floated down the Ohio and Mississippi to Natchez and from there to New Orleans. All the way Mr. Roosevelt studied the currents, eddies and sandbars, making careful notes of the strength of the current and the depth of water, sandbars, etc. Upon leaving New Orleans, he set sail for New York and reported to Fulton and Livingstone that steamboats could travel up and down the western rivers. The people whom he had met along the river, and the barge- and flatboat-men had no faith in his idea of running steamboats on these rivers.

Fulton now worked out plans for building a steamboat at Pittsburgh which should go down the Ohio and Mississippi.

4. With these plans Mr. Roosevelt went to Pittsburgh in 1810 and prepared to build the new boat. It was to be 116 feet long, with a twenty-foot beam, and the engines were made more powerful than for the *Clermont* on the Hudson, because of the strong current on western rivers. There was no suitable lumber for such ship construction, so workmen were sent up the river to cut down trees and find the ribs, knees and beams required, and they did not wait for these timbers to become seasoned. Ship carpenters and machinists were brought from New York. Pittsburgh at that time did not have suitable shops for doing the required iron work. Floods in the river at Pittsburgh covered the shipyards and nearly floated the new boat into the river before it was finished. But in spite of all difficulties, the boat was completed in September, 1811, and launched. The name *New*

Orleans was given to her, but many people feared she would never reach the city of that name.

5. Mrs. Roosevelt, in spite of the fears and forebodings of her friends, was determined to go on the first voyage down the river with her husband. After a trial trip on the Monogahela, in which the boat moved up stream and was easily managed in the current, a crew of fifteen people, including captain, engineer, pilot and cook, was secured and they embarked for the trip to New Orleans. A great crowd on the banks cheered them as they started, and soon the boat was making eight or ten miles an hour down stream. The engines worked smoothly and the boat was easily handled in the current by the pilot at the wheel. The second day they reached Cincinnati and were greeted by old acquaintances made in their former flatboat trip. On the fourth day out from Pittsburgh they reached Louisville, where a public dinner was given them, although most people believed that it was the last steamboat that would be seen on the upper Ohio.

Mr. Roosevelt also gave a dinner on the boat.

> While the feast was at its height there was a rumbling that brought everybody to his feet and caused a rush to the deck. All the guests thought the steamer had escaped from her anchor and was drifting towards the falls of the Ohio, where everybody would be lost. Their dismay was changed to delight when they found she was steaming up the river, and as she warmed to her work and increased her speed they found themselves carried more rapidly than they had ever traveled before on the water. A good many of the incredulous were thus convinced of the success of the enterprise, and faith in the steamboat was materially increased.—Knox, *Life of Robert Fulton*.

At this time the Ohio was at low-water stage, and boats could not pass over the falls at Louisville. They were thus compelled to await a rise in the river. During this period of waiting Mr. Roosevelt took a return voyage up the river to Cincinnati. When the steamboat reached Cincinnati, the people were still more astonished, as they now perceived that such a vessel could steam up river against the current.

6. Returning to Louisville, a rise of the waters in November made the passage of the boat down the rapids and falls

possible but dangerous, as there was but five inches depth to spare. But they engaged a special pilot, and putting on all steam they made a swift dash over the falls.

Rocks rose on either side of the channel, the water was dashed in spray on the deck of the boat, and sometimes the *New Orleans* seemed to pitch forward, as though about to be swallowed up. Everyone grasped some part of the boat for safety and even the big Newfoundland dog shook with terror as he crouched at the feet of Mrs. Roosevelt. It was "une mauvaise quart d' heure," as the French say, but it was quickly and safely over. The danger was passed and the *New Orleans* rounded to at the foot of the falls, where they discharged the pilot who had accompanied them through the dangerous channel.

In his first voyage on the flatboat Mr. Roosevelt found coal at several places along the banks of the lower Ohio and arranged for it to be mined and stored for the arrival of the steamboat whose keel had not then been laid. He found the coal ready according to agreement and took on as much as his boat could carry. When this was exhausted, he took in wood wherever he could find it. At least once in twenty-four hours the boat stopped for wood; there were no wood yards then as in later days, and in nearly every instance the work of cutting and preparing the desired fuel was performed by the crew.

7. Before reaching the Mississippi they were disturbed by the earthquakes which shook the region south of Cairo on both sides of the river in the fall of 1811. The earthquake shocks continued for many days and nights. A comet was also seen in the sky and people were afraid and superstitious.

At some places where the boat stopped for wood the Indians came out and talked, by signs and a few words of English, with the men. They seemed to believe that the steamboat had some connection with the comet as the sparks from the chimney bore a marked resemblance to its fiery tail. They also attributed the smoky atmosphere to the steamer and thought the earthquake was caused by the beating of the paddles.—Knox, *Life of Fulton.*

In spite of all these fears and difficulties the *New Orleans* made its course successfully down the river to Natchez and then to New Orleans. It was then put on regular runs back and forth between Natchez and New Orleans and was the first steamboat to make regular trips on the Mississippi. It was soon followed by other steamers. The *New Orleans* cost its builders $38,000, but it paid back to its owners more than this amount during the few years that it made trips on the river. It was sunk by striking a snag near Baton Rouge, a few years later.

8. The *Enterprise* was the first steamboat to make the whole journey up the river from New Orleans to Pittsburgh, in 1815. It was a time of public rejoicing at Louisville and Pittsburgh.

During the next fifteen or twenty years steamboats became numerous not only on the Ohio, Mississippi and Missouri, but on dozens of smaller tributary streams. The boats were flat-bottomed and had a light draft—in smaller steamboats, not more than a foot and a half.

In his *Life on the Mississippi* Mark Twain says:

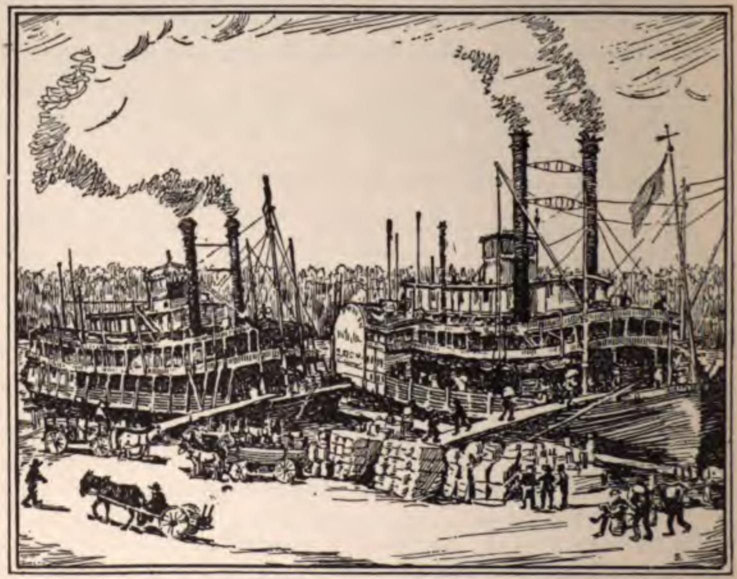
> By and by the steamboat intruded. Then for fifteen or twenty years these men [the keel-boatmen] continued to run their keel boats down the stream, and the steamers did all the up-stream business, the keel-boatmen selling their boats in New Orleans and returning home as deck passengers in the steamers.
>
> But after a while the steamboats so increased in number and in speed that they were able to absorb the entire commerce, and then keel boating died a permanent death. The keel-boatman became a deck hand, or a mate, or a pilot on the steamer; and when steam berths were not open to him, he took a berth on the Pittsburg coal-flat, or on a pine raft, constructed in the forests up toward the sources of the Mississippi.
>
> In the heyday of the steamboating prosperity the river from end to end was flaked with coal fleets and timber rafts, all managed by hand, and employing hosts of the rough characters whom I have been trying to describe. I remember the annual procession of mighty rafts that used to glide by Hannibal when I was a boy—an acre or so of white, sweet-smelling boards in each raft, a crew of a dozen men or more, three or four wigwams scattered about the raft's vast level space for storm quarters—and I remember the rude ways and the tremendous talk of their big crews—for we used to swim out a quarter or a third of a mile and get on these rafts and have a ride.

9. Knox in his Life of Fulton says:

> Steamboating on the Mississippi and its great tributaries was at its height between 1850 and 1860. In 1858 there were on the Missis-

sippi and its tributaries eight hundred and sixteen steamboats with an aggregate capacity of 326,443 tons. The *Enterprise* and her sisters had a capacity of from seventy-five to one hundred tons; the boats of 1850–60 often exceeded 2,000 tons in measurement and could carry cargoes of more than 3,000 tons each, in addition to several hundred passengers. Since that time steamers of even greater capacity have been built, chiefly for the conveyance of freight.

The large Mississippi steamboats were luxuriously fitted up for passengers, with a great dining-hall or saloon lined with spacious cabins on either side. The lower deck as well as the hold was piled with goods. Some of these boats were three hundred feet long and sixty feet wide.



MISSISSIPPI RIVER SCENE
Steamboats receiving cargo, largely of cotton

For nearly forty years this steamboat traffic on the western rivers expanded and was the chief means by which goods and passengers were transported.

It is clear that Fulton's invention of the steamboat proved far more important because of its influence in developing the

Mississippi Valley than for its effects on the Hudson and other eastern rivers.

10. Steamboating on the Mississippi was also beset with serious dangers. First of these was that steamers were always in danger of running upon a snag or a sawyer. These were tree trunks whose roots were embedded in the mud of the river and whose stem was sticking up just below or above the surface. A boat running directly upon one of these snags was almost sure to be wrecked and sunk with great loss of life and property. The United States government and the states have spent large sums of money in removing these snags and logs from the river. Crews of men with dredges and snag pullers were kept at work on the rivers removing these snags and other obstructions.

Another danger was that of exploding engines, due often to over-heated boilers when rival boats were racing up or down the river. The temptations to racing were great, and many fatal disasters were due to this reckless sport.

11. After 1860, with the outbreak of the Civil War, steamboat navigation on the Mississippi greatly diminished. Railroads, from 1850 on, were built in all directions across the Mississippi Valley, and because of their greater speed and convenience, they gradually absorbed the chief part of the traffic. During the last twenty or thirty years steamboat traffic on the Mississippi and its tributaries has been of little importance, as compared with railroads. This is due in part also to the fact that the important traffic routes in the last fifty years have been between the east and the west rather than between the north and the south.

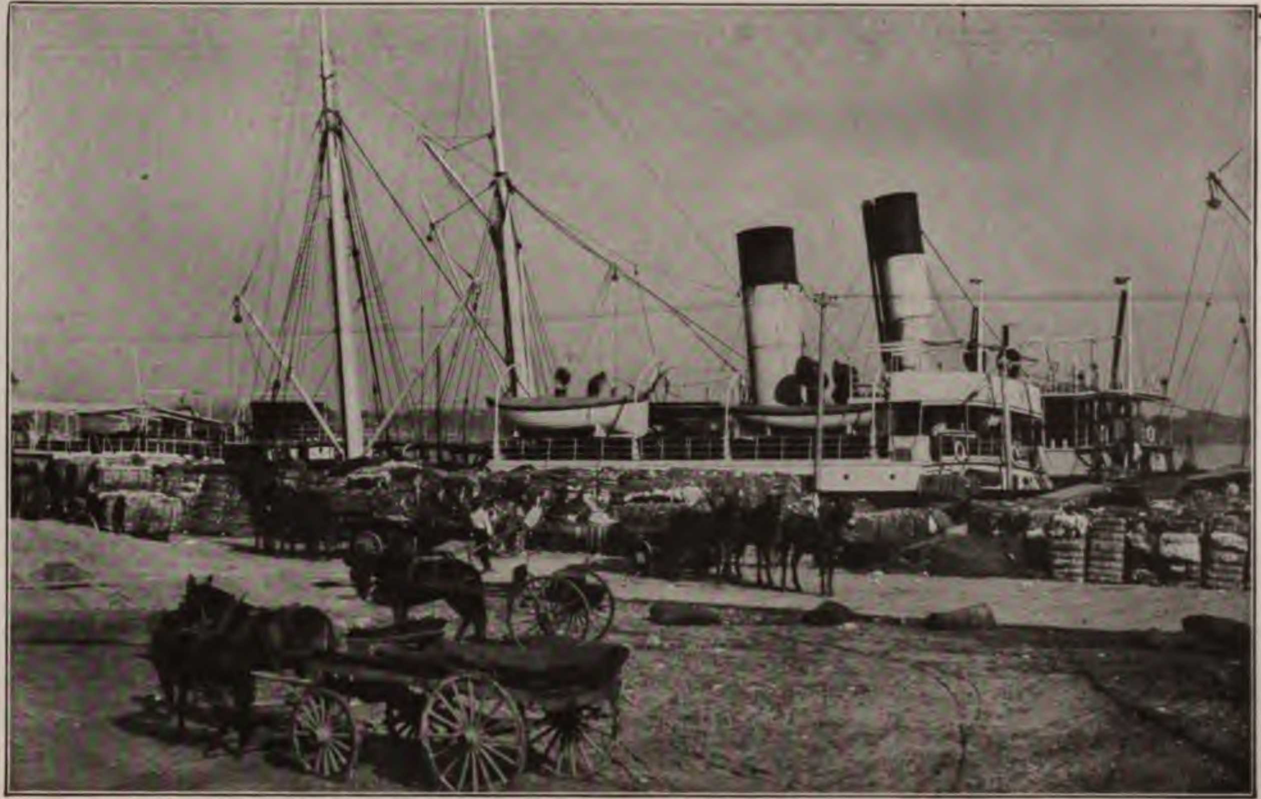
12. In the last few years there has been much public discussion of the improvement of the Mississippi and its main tributaries so as to provide a deep water-way (fifteen feet) from Chicago to St. Louis and the Gulf; likewise a deep water-way from St. Paul to St. Louis and from Pittsburgh to Cairo. This, it is claimed, would greatly cheapen freight rates on all heavy produce like coal, wheat, corn, cotton, lumber and iron, and compel the railroads in turn to reduce

their rates. It is claimed on the other hand that the combined railroads are too powerful to allow this free competition by cheap river traffic and that they will find ways to prevent it.

13. On the Great Lakes also a steam vessel traffic developed soon after Fulton's invention of the steamboat. But the building of steamships on the Great Lakes grew more slowly than on the Ohio and Mississippi. The first steam vessel built on the lakes abo Niagara was launched at Black Rock near Buffalo in 181 and was named the *Walk in the Water*, probably from th name of an Indian chief. The first steam vessel reached C ago in 1832. But steamboats multiplied in the Great Lakes, and thousands of immigrants came west to Ohio, Michigan, Illinois and Wisconsin by the Erie Canal and the Great Lakes steamers, just as they had settled a little earlier along the Ohio. But the development of steamship traffic on the Great Lakes has never dropped back and grown smaller as on the Mississippi. On the contrary the lake traffic in recent years has developed enormously. More large steam vessels have been built in the big shipyards at Detroit, Cleveland and other lake ports than along the Atlantic and Pacific shores of the United States.

It will be interesting to inquire as to why the steam shipping has increased so enormously on the Lakes in recent years, while that on the Mississippi and other rivers has greatly lessened. The steam vessels that navigate the Great Lakes are more like the ocean vessels. They are now chiefly built of steel frames and plates like sea-going steamers, and have a deep draft. The harbors also and the locks of the lake ports have been deepened to receive these deep-draft vessels.

14. As soon as steamboats proved successful on the rivers, people began to think of constructing steamships for ocean travel and traffic. One of the first ocean trips was made by the steamer *Phoenix* from New York to Philadelphia in 1808. Others were built for longer trips, and later ocean trips were made to Europe.



LOADING COTTON, NEW ORLEANS

The first steamship to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*, which made the voyage from Savannah to Liverpool in 1819 in twenty-six days. Since that time the building of ocean steamers has had a vast development.

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Days and Deeds of a Hundred Years Ago. Stone & Fickitt. D. C. Heath & Co.

Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley. McMurry. Macmillan Co.

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10. Type Study on the British Colonies

Suggestions as to Method

(*a*) Study the map of the English colonial possessions on a large globe or world map. The Tarr and McMurry Geography, Part II, p. 274, has such a map of the world.

Drill upon the names and locations of the provinces with respect to England, the equator and the continents.

(*b*) Note the routes of traffic between England and her colonies in different parts of the world.

(*c*) In Africa locate the English colonies and spheres of influence and compare with those of France, Portugal and Germany.

(*d*) Compare later the colonies of England as a whole with those of France, Spain, Holland and the United States. Contrast the growth of English colonies with the decline of Spain and show causes.

(*e*) Compare the colonial empire of England with that of Russia on land and her steadily growing power eastward and southward.

(*f*) Make a chart of the world, showing in what parts of the large land areas the English-speaking populations predominate.

(*g*) Notice finally to what extent the other continents have been explored and colonized by European nations.

Outline of Topics

1. History of English colonies before the American Revolution.

2. The British in East India.
3. The British in Africa.
4. The trade route to India and the East defended by Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, Singapore and Hong Kong.
5. Penal settlements in Australia and their later development.
6. The movement toward confederation of the Australian colonies.
7. The Crown colonies and how they are governed.
8. The growth of English colonies.
9. The growth and decline of Spanish colonies.
10. Portuguese colonies.
11. Dutch, French and other colonies.
12. General conclusion regarding European colonization in the last four centuries.

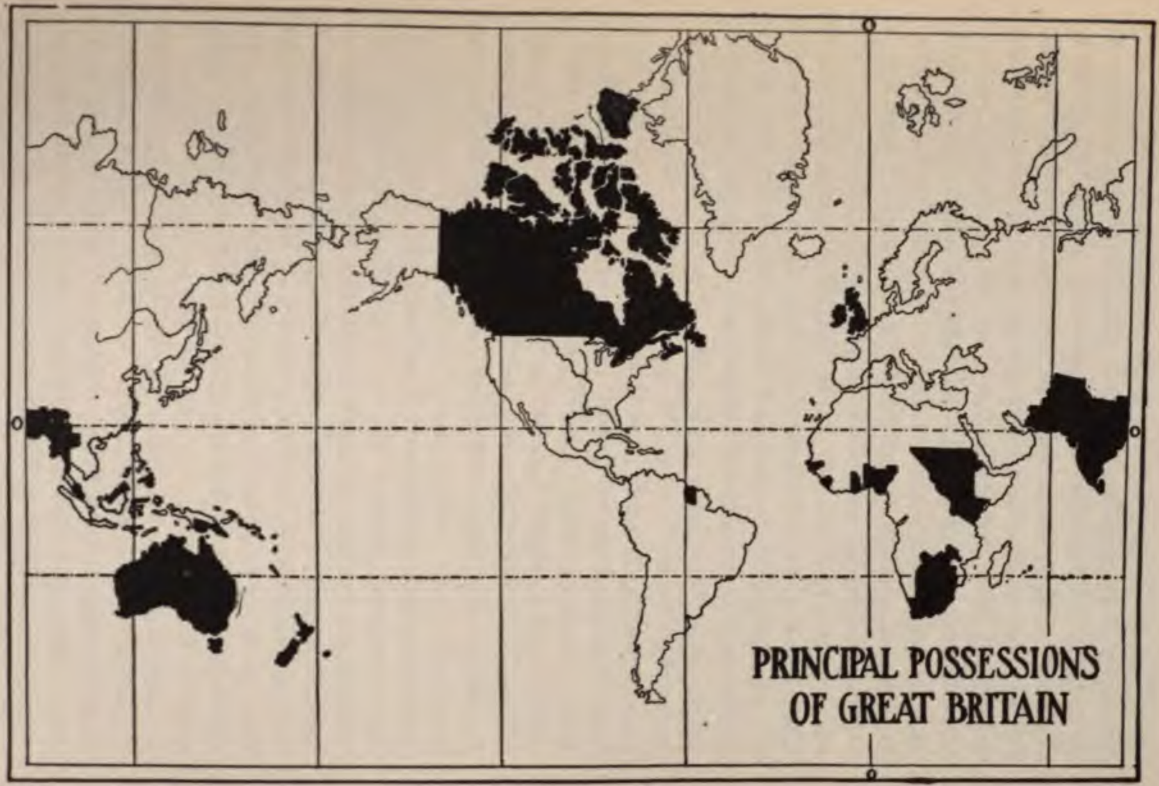
THE BRITISH COLONIES

1. England is that country in Europe which has the largest number of important colonies, distributed throughout the different continents and oceans.

Just before the American Revolution the English had gained possession of the better part of North America, with the thirteen colonies and Canada. Canada had been originally explored and settled by the French under such daring leaders as Cartier, Champlain and La Salle. The region of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi to its mouth was occupied by French settlements and trading posts.

But the last French and Indian war had left England in 1760 in possession of the whole of Canada and of the eastern half of the Mississippi Valley.

But the American Revolution in turn separated from England the best part of her American possessions and appeared, at the time, to be a fatal blow to her colonial development. England, however, had learned from her bitter experiences with America some important lessons in regard to the treatment of colonies.



PRINCIPAL POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN

2. The period just following the American Revolution saw the rapid development of British colonies in many parts of the world. Before the Revolution the British East India Company of Merchants had important trading posts in India. During the seventeenth century the English company had established forts and trading posts at Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and at other places on the Indian mainland. The French were trying at the same time to surpass the English by founding trading posts on the coast of India. There was a fierce struggle between the English and French in India which came to war. A young Englishman named Robert Clive was a clerk in the service of the East India Company at a trading post on the east coast. When the war broke out he showed a remarkable ability in leading the few English troops and the natives against the French. For about sixteen years, from 1751 to 1767, he carried on a successful war and drove the French out of India, establishing the East India Company in control along the coast. Warren Hastings, following Clive, carried on war against the native princes and enlarged the territory of the India Company. Warren Hastings was cruel in his treatment of the natives of India, and was tried before Parliament in England, but was acquitted.

Just after the American Revolution the British government assumed control of the East India Company and appointed a governor-general to manage the political affairs of the colony, leaving the company to direct trade and commerce.

Lord Cornwallis, who surrendered at Yorktown, was the first governor-general of India. He also conducted wars against the natives and enlarged the territory held by England in India.

The East India Company proved incompetent to manage the affairs of this vast empire. In many ways it had acted unjustly toward the natives of India. Parliament finally put an end in 1858 to the company, paid the stockholders a sufficient sum, and the British government took full control of the colony.

In 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. At present England rules directly over 221,172,952 people in India. In addition to this the English government rules indirectly through its influence over 66,005,479 people in what are called the "feudatory states."

In these later years, by establishing courts of justice, by building railroads and irrigation canals, the government has done much to improve the condition of the people of India.

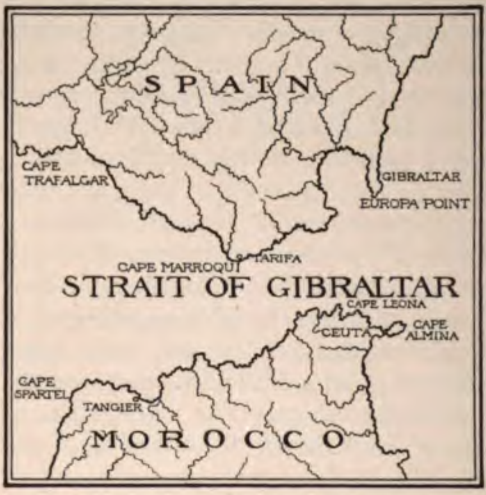
3. South Africa at Cape Town was settled first by the Dutch in 1650, and the district about the Cape was occupied by Dutch farmers till 1795, when the fort was captured by the British. Having been given back to the Dutch it was recaptured during a war with Holland in 1806 and finally secured by England by a payment of thirty million dollars to Holland.

The British government was doubly desirous of securing this territory, first because it was the most important station on the route between England and her possessions in East India. Before the Suez Canal was built, England greatly needed Cape Town as a naval station. Second, Cape Town and settlement was the best point from which to extend the power of England over South Africa. For a long time it was difficult to persuade Englishmen to settle in South Africa, and this colony remained for many years poor and weak.

In 1870 the diamond fields were opened up and Englishmen flocked into South Africa. The English had wars with the Kaffirs and Zulu tribes and with Dutch settlers, or Boers. All these conflicts resulted in the extension of the English domain northward. In 1910 the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State united to form the Union of South Africa, which has a government similar to that of Canada.

In 1882 England, which had long desired to control Egypt on account of its nearness to the Suez Canal, began to exercise a protectorate over that country. War broke out with the Soudan, which England finally conquered under Lord Kitchen-er's leadership. This gave England control in both the north and the south of Africa and led to the beginning of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, which, when completed, will join Cairo to Cape Town. The road is completed northward as far as Kamboro in the Congo State and southward to Khartoum in Upper Egypt.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century England had also gained control of a large territory on the lower Niger River and several smaller portions to the west of the Gulf of Guinea.



MAP OF GIBRALTAR AND VICINITY
Showing the great strategic value of England's stronghold in the Mediterranean

4. In order to control the trade routes to India England has acquired possession of Gibraltar, Malta and Aden. Gibraltar was captured from Spain two hundred years ago and has been greatly strengthened by expensive fortifications. Malta is a powerful military and coaling station in the center of the Mediterranean. Aden, at the outlet of the Red Sea, has been constructed into a great fortress similar to Gibraltar. Singapore, at the end of the Peninsula of Malacca, and Hong Kong, on the Chinese coast, are also strong military and naval stations, which are strengthened at vast expense to protect British commerce in time of war.

5. Australia was explored by the English under Captain Cook in 1769-70. This new country was so far away that the English government decided to send their convicts from

THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR
As seen from the shores of Africa, about ten miles distant

the prisons to the east coast, and for many years, till 1830, they were transported thither to the number of 2,000 or 3,000 a year. They were under military control and were compelled to work and earn their food and other supplies. They suffered great hardships and were cruelly abused by the soldiers. Before 1836 it is estimated that 103,000 criminals had been transported by England to Australia and Tasmania. In 1840 there were 40,000 of these convicts living in Australia, more than half the population of the country at that time.

The introduction of sheep and the production of a fine quality of wool for export to England encouraged immigration. Cheap land also attracted settlers. The convicts were kept building roads and worked as servants to the farmers.

In 1851 gold was discovered and people flocked to South Australia from all parts of the world. In a couple of years Melbourne had a population of 200,000.

Between the years 1850 and 1865, 761,000 people came to Australia, mostly of the English-speaking classes. Many of these were adventurers, and a period of disorder followed for a time. But as the gold fever gradually subsided, people turned more to the settled occupations of farming, stock-raising and commerce; coal, copper and silver were discovered in other parts of the country. Sugar and cotton plantations were developed in the warmer parts of Australia in the northeast. An excellent system of schools was established; roads were built, and a railroad system began to connect the colonies.

6. As population and settlements increased, the different states began to come closer to each other and to work together for common interests. They began even to talk of a confederation of the Australian states under one general government.

From 1852 on the sentiment grew more favorable to the confederation of the colonies under one government, and various conventions were held to devise a plan of union. A constitution similar in many respects to that of the United

States was worked out. After various attempts to reach an agreement, a constitution was adopted, and the "Commonwealth of Australia" was established by agreement of all the states in 1900.

This government, which unites all of the states of Australia into a federal union, has a legislature of two houses elected by the people, a judiciary and a governor-general appointed by the crown.

The government of Australia is like that of Canada, which is also a federation of states with independence in all local and purely Canadian affairs.

Quite recently the South African colonies have formed a similar union of federated states which in time seems destined to grow into a powerful nation.

Among the English colonies therefore there have developed three great federal states, Canada, Australia and South Africa, all based upon an organization of government similar to the United States.

New Zealand also is a free, self-governing state of Englishmen, having its own legislature and receiving its governor-general by appointment from the crown.

7. Nearly all the other colonies of England are crown colonies, that is, controlled directly by the government of England and without independent law-making assemblies of their own. The English Parliament legislates for the crown colonies, such as India, the Soudan, Jamaica and other islands in the West Indies and East Indies. The crown colonies are peopled by alien races not speaking the English tongue, that is, races not yet sufficiently developed to be self-governing.

8. At various times, partly by war with European states, England has gained possession of important islands; in the East Indies, for example, Ceylon, parts of Borneo and New Guinea, the Solomon and Fiji Islands; in the West Indies, Jamaica, and the Windward Group; in the Atlantic, the Falklands, St. Helena, Bahamas and Burmudas; in the Pacific several smaller groups. In Africa and Asia England

has enlarged her territories by gradually increasing her "spheres of influence" as in Egypt, the Soudan and South Africa.

In these various ways the British Empire has grown till it comprises a land area of more than eleven million square miles, or about one-fifth of the total land area of the world. Much of this lies in the temperate and more habitable parts of the earth where the stronger races develop.

9. In the period following the discovery of America, Spain, by exploration and conquest, got possession of the West Indies, Mexico, most of the states of South America and parts of what is now the United States, besides the Philippines. Spain acquired great wealth by the cônquest of Mexico and Peru, and during the sixteenth century surpassed England and other nations of Europe in commercial and colonial enterprise. But Spain was harsh and cruel in her treatment of subject races, and when, later, England, Holland and France began their colonial schemes, Spain fell behind in the competition and gave up, one after the other, nearly all of her colonies. Today she has almost no colonial empire.

10. Portugal also, for a short time, was very successful in gaining colonies in Africa, East India and South America, but like Spain, Portugal has lost most of her colonies.

11. Holland, though a small nation, acquired during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries great influence as a colonizer in East India, Africa, and to some extent in America. Some of her important colonies, like Java, she has held to this day.

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CHAPTER THREE

CIVIL GOVERNMENT

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Brookings, South Dakota

1. Training for Citizenship. The school is an instrument of society for the preservation of its ideals and processes by transmitting them to succeeding generations. These are also taught in the home, the business world, the church and the government, but the school is created for this special purpose; it is society's supreme effort to preserve its own life.

Training in the three R's is imperative, since they are the keys to all learning and culture, but it should be remembered that they as readily unlock all doors of vice and crime. Training for industrious, coöperative and intelligent citizenship is, in an important sense, the supreme purpose of the school.

In haphazard contact with community and civic life through childhood and youth many valuable lessons in patriotism and civic responsibility will be learned. We must not expect, however, that these incidental, and often, accidental, lessons will constitute sufficient training for the child so that in maturity he may play a man's part in a world of men. Society looks to the school to give definite training for citizenship. The school must instil ideals of civic righteousness and cultivate habits of social service, for these alone insure the perpetuity and progress of an enlightened democracy.

2. Changing Social Conditions. Time was when most persons lived and died in the same community in which they were born. The face to face group has a most powerful influence in controlling the conduct of the individual. One has but to notice his own tendency to carelessness when away from home and among strangers to appreciate the power of community restraint. People no longer spend their whole lives in the same community, there is a constant shifting and, as a consequence, a weakening of the force of the public opinion of the face to face group upon the individual. Modern freedom, intelligence, the growth of cities, prosperity and easy means of transportation have broken up the fixed social relations which characterized past civilizations.

With the rapid weakening of the restraining influence of the permanent community life there must be a corresponding strengthening of character or there will be a moral decadence. As the group control lessens, the moral fiber of the individual must strengthen. The modern social life requires a finer sort of patriotism and character, for many a man's rectitude of life is due as much to the public opinion of his group, "What folks say," as to his own self-control.

The soldier on the field of battle is very brave but the one who is true and faithful in the midst of temptation when the eye of the public is not upon him is even braver. A higher type of citizenship must be developed if the higher form of civilization is to be preserved. The loftiness of the ideals of modern life and the complex and changing character of the activities and culture of our day and age, place newer and greater responsibilities upon the school.

3. The School a Democracy. Any society stamps its character upon its schools. Society creates the school in its own image. As the schools of ancient Sparta were the barracks, and those of Rome were the forum, so the American public school is a miniature democracy, putting into active practice the principles industry, virtue, self-control, justice, equality and fraternity. The thoughtful teacher has abundant opportunity in the administration of the democracy of school life to instil lasting lessons in citizenship. The child who has learned to restrain his caprice for the good of the group and cheerfully conform to law has learned the first lesson in true patriotism. In opening or general exercises, in assigning committed productions, readings, essays and language lessons and in other ways there are countless opportunities to cultivate a vital interest in public affairs.

4. Civics for Citizenship. Every subject in the course of study and every activity of the school and playground may lend direct assistance in training for intelligent and helpful participation in social life. But just as physiology and hygiene are the best public school studies by which individual health is conserved, so civics is the study which is most valuable for the conservation of civic and social health. Civics should be more than a study of governmental processes, just as citizenship should be more than simply intelligent conformity to law. But while we have the democracy of industry, of domestic, educational, fraternal and religious life, democracy in government is the supreme manifestation of civic life. Civics, therefore, is mainly concerned with a study of governmental institutions and activities.

5. Civics Scrap Book. Interest will be aroused and sustained by the making of a scrap book. A loose-leaf note book answers the purpose splendidly. If one cannot be purchased a scrap book can be made by the pupil very easily from any good sized old book. A few pages should be cut out here and there to make room for the articles and pictures pasted in. A very good paste may be made by wetting a little flour in cold water, then letting it boil until it thickens. When cold stir in a few drops of formaldehyde and the paste will not get moldy. A few drops of essence of peppermint will give the paste an agreeable odor.

The children should watch the newspapers and magazines for articles on government or community actions. These should be clipped out and neatly pasted in the scrap book. Put in pictures of federal, state, county or city officers, court houses, capitol buildings, public parks, sanitariums, life saving stations, weather bureau, post offices and other public buildings, etc. Maps, charts, diagrams and outlines as suggested in this chapter should also be added. When finished an index should be carefully made.

6. Formal Talks. Time was when pupils were compelled to write essays on abstract subjects or upon those concerning which they had little knowledge. There is something wrong with the teaching when pupils do not "have something to say." Under good instruction, therefore, a prepared talk, either from a written out essay, or from notes, is no formidable task but is looked upon with pleasure. Before asking the pupil to prepare a "talk" the teacher should see to it that the pupil has some information on the subject and an interest in it. Then the preparation will not be a drudge and the pupil will need assistance only in the arrangement of topics and some language assistance, such as the shortening of long sentences.

The following subjects will suggest others of interest and value in this work:

(a) VISITS. A visit to a court house, to a post office, to a park, to a county fair, to a football game, to a college or normal school, to a farmer's institute, to a teachers' institute, to a picnic, to a newspaper office, to a telegraph office, to a hospital.

(b) HOW SOME THINGS ARE DONE. How men and women vote. How mail is sent. How roads are repaired. How taxes are collected. How a deed is written and recorded. How contracts are made. How candidates are nominated. How a silo is made. How disease is spread.

(c) NEEDS. The need for good roads, for rural telephones, for groves, for a public hall, for literary societies, for good health, for skating ponds, for taxation, for a beautiful schoolroom, for ventilation in school, church and home.

(d) OTHER TOPICS. Our debt to the pioneer. Prevention of accidents. First aid to the injured. The care of the teeth. Home life in the city compared with home life in the country. Country sports and city sports. When grandma was a girl. When grandpa was a boy. A talk with the oldest settler. Some good habits and some bad ones. What I want to be when a man or a woman. The games I like to play.

7. A Flag Salute. The flag salute, which is used in most schools of this country, is given as follows: At a signal from the teacher every pupil stands erect and faces the flag, which is usually draped on the wall back of the teacher's desk. At another signal, generally made by raising the hand, the military salute is given by the pupils. This is made by lifting the right hand, palm downward, the forefinger touching the forehead above the eye. Standing thus, all repeat together slowly:

> We give our heads and our hearts to our country; one country, one language, one flag.

At the words, "our hearts," the right hand is placed over the heart, then dropped at the side. At the words, "one flag," the right hand is extended gracefully, palm upward, toward the flag, all eyes being directed toward it.

Another flag salute is given as follows:

> I pledge allegiance to my flag and the Republic for which it stands; one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.

At the words, "to my flag," the hand is extended toward the flag and remains in this position until the end.

A pleasing variation is made sometimes by giving the "silent salute." The pupils form in a line, or in two lines, facing each other. The flag is then carried in front of the line. or between the lines. and the hands remain at salute until the flag has been placed in its position, when, at a signal from the teacher, every hand is dropped.

8. Need for Government. The discussion of the need for government should be taken up as an incidental topic growing out of some other discussion. The pupils should clearly grasp the principles in the following paragraph. To this end the teacher should study it carefully.

All acts of people are regulated either by custom or by law. If you notice the reason why you do most things, you will observe that nearly everything is directly regulated by custom and only indirectly controlled by law. Custom controls, government guides. Nearly always the conduct of affairs in the home is controlled by the custom of the home itself. This is true also of the church, the school, and business activities. Self-control is the individual force which regulates custom. Law is the public force which must be applied when self-control and custom do not make the proper adjustment. Government exists to regulate those acts which custom does not adjust. There are two reasons why custom does not adjust all acts; (1) because some people are dishonest, untruthful and evil; and (2) because people make mistakes and misunderstand each other. Even though all people were good, we should still need government. It is an accepted saying even of the Better World, that "Order is Heaven's first law."

There is another reason for government. It is needed to provide means for carrying on many activities, such as mail service, money, roads, bridges, education, public health, etc.

Thus we see that government is not something to oppress people, as anarchists believe, but is for the good of mankind. The word *government* comes from the Latin *gubernator*, which means "one who guides a ship." The word, therefore, means guidance.

9. Forms of Government. (a) MONARCHY. There are two forms of government among civilized people today; monarchies and republics. A monarchy (Gr. *monos*, alone+ *archein*, to rule) is that form of government in which a king or queen is at the head. In an absolute monarchy the king is not restricted by law. Russia is the most nearly absolute monarchy of the great nations of the world. In a limited monarchy the king or queen has to obey the laws passed by the representatives of the people. In such monarchies as Great Britain the king has almost no governmental power, not nearly so much as the president in a republic, and the people as truly rule as in some republics. Indeed, there are few republics where the people rule so completely as in Great Britain. A monarchy of great extent is sometimes called an empire.

(b) REPUBLIC. A republic is that form of government in which representatives of the people make and enforce all laws. The chief ruler is called a president. The words republic (Lat. *res*, affair+*publica*, public) and democracy (Gr. *demos*, people+*kratein*, to rule), as we now use the words, mean very nearly the same. When we speak of a democracy we usually think of the people themselves as ruling. The voters of a township and of a common school district hold meetings where they decide upon certain matters. Their government to that extent is a pure democracy.

10. Our Government Twofold. Write your complete address, naming the principal governmental divisions. The author would write his as follows: Aberdeen city, Aberdeen township, Brown county, South Dakota, United States. To this might be added street, ward, school district, county commissioner district, judicial district, etc. It is not strange that foreigners often find our government hard to understand, since there are so many divisions for governmental purposes and each part has its own more or less separate method of government.

All of these may easily be classified as belonging to two groups, those controlled by the nation and those controlled by the state. We live, therefore, under a twofold government — national and state. The national government is sometimes called federal.

11. Departments of the National Government. The federal government has a written constitution, which provides for (1) a law-making body, congress, (2) a President and other officers to enforce its laws, and (3) federal courts to try cases involving the constitution and laws of the United States and cases between states or citizens of different states. These are called the three departments of government: (1) Legislative, or law-making; (2) executive, or law-enforcing; and (3) judicial, or law-applying. Any government must have these three departments, though in some kingdoms the same officers may exercise powers in all.

Congress, which meets each year at Washington, D. C., has passed laws regulating the mail service. If these laws are violated a United States officer, called a United States marshal, may arrest the one who is accused of the crime. A United States court will then try the accused, and if he is found guilty he may be imprisoned in a United States prison. There are many other affairs that are regulated by the national government, and with these affairs the state has nothing to do.

12. Departments of State Government. Each of the states of the Union has its written constitution, and this provides for (1) a law-making department, called the state legislature in most states, (2) a law-enforcing department, the governor being the principal executive officer, and (3) a law-applying department in the courts of the state. Thus the state legislature has passed laws regulating insurance and fire protection. If these laws are violated, the accused person is arrested by a sheriff, constable, or policeman, is tried before a judge of the state courts, and, if sentenced to prison, is taken to the state penitentiary. In all of these matters the national government has no part whatever.

Affairs are not always so simple as in these two cases, for some are regulated in part by the nation and in part by the state. On the whole, however, the beginner would do well to think of these two governments as completely separate and independent, each with its own powers and a complete set of officers. The federal officers have nothing to do with state laws and state officers have nothing to do with federal laws.

13. A Republic Within a Republic. The United States is a republic because the government is carried on by officers chosen by the people. For the same reason a state is a republic. Thus each state of our Union is a republic within a republic, each with its own laws, powers and duties. The following in parallel columns shows the general plan of the federal government and of the state government.

As conditions vary in different states the teacher and class should complete the outline in some detail for their own state, secure a picture of the state capitol, etc. There is much confusion in the mind of the pupil as to the distinctions between state and federal government and this outline should be drilled upon most thoroughly.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

UNITED STATES	STATE *
CONGRESS meets once a year at Washington, D. C., and makes laws for the nation.	LEGISLATURE meets once every two years at state capitol and makes laws for the state.
Consists of two bodies of men, a senate and a house of representatives.	Consists of two bodies of men, a senate and a house of representatives.
The federal senate is made up of two senators from each state, chosen by vote of the people. Term six years.	The state senate is made up of senators elected by the voters of districts made up of one or more counties.
The presiding officer is the Vice-President of the United States.	The presiding officer is the Lieutenant-Governor of the state.
The federal house of representatives is made up of representatives elected by the different states; the number from a state depends upon its population. Term two years.	The state house of representatives is made up of representatives elected by the voters of districts consisting of one or more counties. The number from any district depends upon its population.
The presiding officer is called the speaker.	The presiding officer is called the speaker.

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* Provisions vary in different states.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

PRESIDENT of the United States, the chief executive officer. Elected for four years.	GOVERNOR of the state is the chief executive officer. Elected for from one to four years.
Many other federal officers to enforce federal laws.	Many other state officers to enforce state laws.
VICE-PRESIDENT of the United States, fills vacancy in office of President.	LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR usually fills vacancy in office of Governor.
Is president of the U. S. senate.	Is president of the state senate.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

UNITED STATES COURTS, with judges and other officers to decide whether a federal law has been violated or applied in a given case. Judges appointed by President for life.	STATE COURTS, with judges and other officers to decide whether a state law has been violated or applies in a given case.
UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT. Nine judges meet at Washington. Circuit court of appeals relieves Supreme Court of many cases.	JUDGES usually elected.
UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURTS. At least one for each state. One judge in each district, appointed for life.	STATE SUPREME COURT. Judges meet at state capital. STATE CIRCUIT COURTS. One judge in each circuit.
(U. S. has no court corresponding to Justices of the Peace. Court commissioner is nearest like it.)	JUSTICES of the Peace.

14. Division of Powers. All governmental powers are exercised either by the state or by the nation. The division of the powers of government in Canada is on the opposite plan from ours. The constitution of that country (called *The British North American Act of* 1867) provides that certain named powers are given to the states (called provinces), and *all other powers* shall belong to the federal government (called the Dominion). Now, our federal constitution provides that the national government shall have certain named powers and *all others* shall belong to the states. Following are some of the powers exercised by the national government which the states do not have:

(a) EXCLUSIVE NATIONAL POWERS. The national government has power to coin money and punish counterfeiting; to make war and peace and control the army and navy; to make treaties with foreign nations; to regulate commerce with foreign nations, with Indians, and between states; to settle disputes between the states or between citizens of different states; to punish crimes on the high seas; to admit new states into the Union and to govern all territories and possessions of the United States, and the District of Columbia; to regulate the election of President and members of congress; to provide how foreigners may become citizens; to provide bankruptcy laws; to provide for the mail service.

(b) STATE POWERS. Among the many governmental powers carried on by a state, over which the nation has little or no direct control, may be named the following: The punishment of people within the state who violate state laws; the regulation of commerce which is wholly within the state; to decide who may vote; to carry on a system of public schools; to regulate contracts, marriage and divorce; to conduct all elections of local, state, and federal officers; to care for insane and other defectives; to regulate the practice of medicine, dentistry, etc.; to regulate insurance; to regulate deeds, mortgages, and sales of land and other property; to protect life and property. There are a great many other affairs which are left almost entirely to the states to control and adjust.

(c) CONCURRENT POWERS. There are many powers in which both the federal government and the state government have a share. Both may tax people, industries and property; both may encourage agriculture, manufacturing, education and other activities; both may provide for the public health, good roads, drainage, irrigation and a great many other public undertakings. We have national banking laws regulating national banks and state banking laws regulating state banks.

(d) NATION SUPREME. The constitution of the United States denies some powers to both the federal and state governments. (See Article I, Sections 9 and 10.) It is well to remember that while these two governments apply to each person, and each government has practically nothing to do with the other, the federal government is always supreme and in case of conflict or disagreement of laws, the state must give way to the nation.

15. Correlation of History and Civil Government. History reveals institutions in the process of becoming. If properly taught history will exhibit to the pupil government in the making. The teacher should not hesitate to devote some time to the civic institutions involved in the history lesson. For example, in the study of the Revolution and the Critical Period following the pupils should see how our federal constitution was evolved. The weakness of the national government under the Articles of Confederation cannot be well understood without at least a brief comparison of the provisions of that constitution with the one which took its place in 1789. The following outline shows some of the principal points of difference between the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution:

THE CONSTITUTION	THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION
1. The constitution provides a national government based more or less on the will of the people.	1. The articles pledged a league of the states.
2. Representation in the lower house of congress is based upon the population of the state. Each state has two senators. Each member of Congress has one vote.	2. Congress consisted of only one branch; each state, whatever its number of delegates, had only one vote.
3. The supreme court has jurisdiction over all disputes between states.	3. Congress decided disputes between states.
4. No state is allowed to coin and issue money.	4. Congress shared with the states the power to coin and issue money.

5. The power to regulate foreign and interstate commerce and raise revenue is vested in the national government.	5. The power to regulate commerce and raise revenue was wholly under the control of the states.
6. Congress has power to declare war and to raise and maintain an army and navy. If necessary it can draft men for this purpose.	6. Congress could declare war but the power to raise troops was within the control of the states.
7. Congress now has power to levy and collect taxes.	7. Congress could not collect taxes from the states.
8. Congress can authorize and execute all laws necessary for carrying into execution the powers conferred upon it.	8. Congress could not compel the observance of laws.
9. Congress has power to guarantee the payment of loans contracted by the United States.	9. The payment of borrowed money could not be guaranteed.
10. The constitution has been found adequate to every emergency that has arisen.	10. "Congress could declare everything, but could do nothing."

16. Adoption of the Constitution. The following briefly summarizes some phases of the historical study which are very helpful in understanding our federal government:

(1) Weakness of the government under the Articles of Confederation.

a. Congress dealt with states rather than with individuals. States were asked to collect and pay taxes. If a state refused it could not be coerced except by making war upon it, a dangerous and almost unthinkable remedy.

b. Congress had no power over foreign commerce. If one state tried to retaliate for discriminations in trade by a foreign country, another state refused to cooperate but opened her ports. The United States could not thus present a united front to foreign nations in respect to commerce and the latter could discriminate against us at will. States quarrelled among themselves over commerce also.

c. There were many minor defects. It required a two-thirds vote of all the states to pass many important laws. Each state supported its own representatives, different states paying different salaries. The vote in Congress was by states, each state having one vote, thus constantly aligning states against each other.

(2) The Alexandria Conference. Representatives from Maryland and Virginia met in 1785 to agree upon matters concerning the navigation of Chesapeake Bay and adjacent waters. Accepting an invitation to Mt. Vernon, near by, they conferred with Washington. Washington urged that other states join in agreements as to commerce and currency.

(3) The Annapolis Convention. This was an outgrowth of the Alexandria Conference. Five states sent representatives to Annapolis in 1786. Upon the recommendation of Hamilton the twelve representatives decided to urge that a convention be held to effect agreements as to many pressing government needs.

(4) The Philadelphia Convention. This convention was held in 1787, framing our present constitution. The constitution was submitted to a vote of the states, was adopted by two-thirds of them in 1788 and became operative in 1789. The story of this convention is too long to outline here. The three great compromises, however, may be noted.

a. The Connecticut Compromise. The larger states favored the Virginia Plan providing that representation from each state should be according to population. The smaller states favored the New Jersey Plan which provided that regardless of population the states should have equal representation. After a heated discussion the Connecticut plan was adopted as a compromise. That state had, and still has, a legislature consisting of two bodies, one having representation from towns according to population and another having equal representation from each town. It was proposed that congress consist of two bodies, a house of representatives made of representatives from the states according to population and a senate having two senators from each state. This plan was adopted.

b. The Three-fifths Compromise. Immediately the question arose as to whether slaves should be counted in the population of the states in determining the number of representatives. The states having slaves wanted them counted, as this would give them more representatives. The other states objected. At length a compromise was adopted whereby a slave was to be counted as three-fifths of a person in deciding the population on which should be determined the number of representatives and the amount of direct taxes.

c. Slave Importation Compromise. Some time before 1787 a strong sentiment existed against the importation of more slaves. By this time nearly all that were imported came to Georgia and the Carolinas, where there were big establishments for "breaking in" the wild negroes brought from Africa. The delegates from these states objected to giving power to Congress to regulate commerce, because Congress would undoubtedly at once prohibit the importation of slaves if it had the power. At length it was decided that Congress should have power over foreign and interstate commerce, but could not prohibit the importation of slaves until 1808. (See Article I, Section 9, Clause 1, of the constitution.)

17. Congress. Study the House of Representatives and Senate, their organization and membership and joint and separate powers. Methods of debate, "yielding the floor," "pairing," impeachment, long and short sessions of Congress, quorum, privileges of members and powers of Congress. (Article I, Section 8.) Duties, internal revenue, interstate commerce, intrastate commerce, naturalization, bankruptcy, legal tender, counterfeiting, copyrights, patents, piracy, government of the District of Columbia, Habeas Corpus, bill of attainder, ex post facto law, titles of nobility. Do not fail to use the dictionary and encyclopedia. A discussion of nearly every important topic will be found in them.

18. The Federal Executive Department. The nomination of presidential candidates, national central committees, presidential electors, the electoral college, qualifications of

President, vacancies in Presidency. Powers of the President: pardoning power, foreign relations, making of treaties, appointment of officers, civil service. The Cabinet: members, powers and duties, bureaus.

19. The Federal Judiciary. The study of the judiciary is always difficult because the pupils, as a rule, have had little experience in court proceedings. The subject should be made as concrete as possible. Instead of beginning with definitions it is well to suppose that a case arose, for example, a dispute over the sale or ownership of some property valued at $80.00. The distinction between civil and criminal actions and the jurisdiction (power to try cases) of the courts would at once arise. Complaint, summons, pleadings, subpoena, venire, jury, examination, cross-examination, arguments, charge, verdict, etc., would follow as a matter of course and the terms would be associated with concrete instances instead of being a matter of abstract memory of words. Outlines and definitions should follow the discussions.

Printed forms of all these documents are usually on sale by stationery dealers, or they can be procured of an attorney at small cost. The pupils should study each form and then the class should decide what words should be inserted in each blank space. This study may occupy the spare moments of the pupils for several days before it is taken up in class for final action. In this way court procedure will be more readily understood than it possibly can be by mere description or even by attending a trial, since most of the papers studied are served before the case is brought into court. The class may occasionally visit the court room, but before the visit is made the teacher should ascertain what cases are to be tried. He should accompany the class, ask them to take notes and at the next lesson discuss the visit with the pupils and explain whatever they failed to understand. These visits and discussions will make the work practical, increase the interest in the study of Civics and give the pupils fair knowledge of court procedure.

The following outline of the federal judiciary system gives the leading facts. A similar outline should be made for the state:

UNITED STATES COURTS]

TITLE	ORGANIZATION	JURISDICTION*
Supreme Court	A chief justice, salary, $15,000; eight associates, salary, $14,500.	This court has original jurisdiction in all cases relating to ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls; and those to which a state is a party. It has appellate jurisdiction in all cases originating in the inferior courts, save such as congress by law shall except. Appeals may be made to it, and writs of error lie to it, from the district court, from the courts of appeals, and from the supreme courts of the District of Columbia and the territories.
Circuit Courts of Appeals.	Nine, each with a justice of the supreme court, and two circuit judges; salary $7,000.	Appeals from district and territorial courts.
District Courts.	One hundred and three districts, including Alaska and insular possessions, each with a district judge; salary, $6,000.	Its jurisdiction embraces an extensive control of criminal cases, and over all civil suits involving the construction of federal law. The same jurisdiction is given also whether or not a federal law is involved, providing the suit is between states, or between citizens of the United States and foreign states or citizens thereof. Many cases connected with the revenue laws, admiralty matters, suits against consuls, cases arising under the postal laws, and criminal prosecutions for violations of federal laws.
Court of Claims.	A chief justice, salary, $6,500; and four associates, salary, $6,000.	Over money claims of individuals against the government excepting pensions.
Court Private Land Claims.	A chief justice, $5,000, and four associates, $5,000.	Decides conflicting claims of title to certain public lands.
Court Appeals District Columbia.	A chief justice, $6,500, and two associates, $6,000.	Hears appeals from the supreme court of the District of Columbia.
Supreme Ct. District Columbia.	A chief justice, $5,000, and four associates, $5,000.	Resembles in jurisdiction other United States district courts.
Territorial Courts.	Judges appointed for four years.	Resembles United States districts courts.

Admiralty Courts, Commissioners' Courts, and Courts-martial.

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* The supreme court has both original and appellate jurisdiction; the circuit courts of appeals, and the court of appeals for the District of Columbia, have only appellate jurisdiction; the other courts only original jurisdiction.

20. State Government. The legislative, executive and judicial departments of the state should be taken up in considerable detail. The legislative districts and the membership from the local district should be matters of personal knowledge. Much of the state geography which is often taught abstractly, as names of counties, rivers, etc., can be taught incidentally in the study of just such subjects. How laws are enacted and many interesting facts concerning the legislature may be learned from a legislator in the neighborhood.

The executive state officers, elective and appointive, the various boards of administration should be taken up as evidence of certain public needs. The judicial department should begin with the local justice or municipal court.

21. Local Government. In taking this up in a logical way we at last arrive at the primary units of government. Here civic action is initiated and demonstrated most concretely. For these reasons there should be some study of local government in the intermediate grades, preparatory to the formal study in the grammar grades.

The establishment of the county systems of government in the south and the township plan in the north should be noted. Show how the coming of Church congregations to New England and the geography of that region favored the township unit and the more level stretches of coastal plains with wide rivers in the south and the plantation system favored the county system there. Show how the tide of migration westward carried these two systems in parallel lines. Trace back the origin of such terms as sheriff (shire reeve), constable (count of the stable), coroner (crowner), county, town, etc. Do not fail to have the pupils consult the dictionary where all such terms are explained. The management of schools, roads, bridges, drainage projects, care of poor, recording of deeds and mortgages, collection of taxes, survey of lands, the town meeting, etc., suggest interesting subjects for special study.

22. The City. The congestion of large numbers of people within limited areas gives rise to special civic problems. Many interesting subjects suggest themselves as sanitation, parks, drainage, boulevards and driveways, policing, smoke, fire prevention, traffic control, building regulations, paving, street sprinkling and cleaning, waterworks, sewerage, street lighting, amusements, markets, charities, cemeteries, libraries, gas and electric lighting plants, hospitals, playgrounds, franchises, etc. There are two forms of city government in operation in the United States.

(a) THE MAYOR AND COUNCIL FORM. The government of most cities in the United States has not been conspicuously successful. This has been in part due to the attempt to administer the affairs of the city on the same general plan as that of the state — an executive head (mayor), a legislative department (council, sometimes consisting of two bodies) consisting of representatives from different sections into which the city is divided (wards). The judicial department is usually too closely related to the mayor and council to have the independence necessary. According to this plan there is little opportunity to fix responsibility and members of the city council (aldermen) are often more interested in their own separate wards which elect them than in the city as a whole. The system is usually honeycombed with petty graft in the selection of minor officials and employees on basis of "pull," or the repaying of obligations, rather than upon merit.

(b) THE COMMISSION FORM. To remedy these evils the commission form of city government has been adopted in a great many cities, usually with very gratifying results. Galveston, Los Angeles and Des Moines were pioneers in this movement and the forms of government are often named from these cities. The usual plan is to have the affairs administered by a commission of five men elected "at large," that is, not from any particular section of the city. Each commissioner is elected to serve five years and is assigned a special department. The common division is as follows: (1) Police and fire commissioner. (2) Commissioner of streets and public property. (3) Commissioner of waterworks and sewerage. (4) Commissioner of finance and revenue. (5) Mayor. The mayor presides at meetings of the board and has general supervision over the affairs of the city. Each year there is an election of a commissioner. One issue and candidates for but one office are before the people. Much more interest and intelligence are exercised in voting at such an election and the commissioner is thus held more strictly accountable for the administration of his department. To avoid the danger of giving large powers to a commissioner for a long term the *recall* is often included in the plan. By petition the people may vote on the question as to whether any of these commissioners should be recalled from office and others elected in their stead. Even though the recall may not be used often it is a reminder to the officer, or to use the apt figure of President Wilson, "It is a gun behind the door."

(c) STUDY OF CITY PROBLEMS. A careful study should be made of the different kinds of city government found in the state. What is an ordinance? a charter? Discuss the importance of parks, of playgrounds, of building inspection, of food inspection. Discuss the city manager plan. Compare school advantages in the city or town with those in the country. Discuss the consolidation of rural schools.

23. Nominations. Candidates for office are nominated for office by different political parties. There are two general plans in use (a) the convention system and (b) the primary election.

(a) THE CONVENTION SYSTEM. Suppose we consider the nomination of candidates for president. Each political party calls a meeting of all of the voters of the party in each township, ward or voting precinct. This is called a primary or caucus. At this meeting delegates are chosen to represent the party at the county (or, in Louisiana, the parish) convention. This convention chooses delegates to represent the party in the state or district (congressional) convention. The state or district convention selects delegates to the national convention which nominates candidates for President and Vice-President. Each political party, it should be remembered, has its own separate caucuses and conventions. Usually separate county and state conventions are called to select party candidates for county and state offices.

(b) PRIMARY ELECTIONS. It is so easy for a few skilful politicians and interested co-workers to control a caucus or convention that the term *political boss* has been applied to them. It was believed that if conventions could be done away with, in part, at least, and the voters of a party could vote directly for candidates there would be less opportunity for political corruption. It was to accomplish this purpose that the primary election system was devised. While called an election it should be remembered that it is not an election to office but simply to choose candidates for office.

Example. Suppose that A, B and C are all Republicans and that each seeks to get the nomination of his party for county judge. Each one must have a petition signed by a certain number of the Republicans of his county. These petitions are filed with the county auditor (or other proper officer) who has their names printed on the Republican ticket. At the primary election the Republicans will elect A, B or C as their party candidate for county judge. Suppose A is chosen. In the November election, then, A's name will appear on the ballot as the Republican candidate for this office. In a similar way a Democratic candidate for county judge is nominated by the Democrats at the primary election, and thus each of the other political parties nominates its candidates. Now at the November election the voter is given a ballot containing the names of all of those candidates. If he wishes to vote for the Republican candidate for county judge, he makes an X before the name of A, the Republican candidate. Or, if he wishes to vote for the candidate of some other party, he may do so.

24. The Political Campaign. Each political party usually has a national committee, made up of one member from each state and territory; a state committee, made up of one member from each county; a county committee, made up of one member from each voting precinct; and a local committee for each township, town and city. These committees look after party interests, employ speakers, send out campaign literature, and, in general, have charge of the political campaign. In the heat of an election contest many things are said and done that would not occur ordinarily. In former days there used to be torch light processions, "barbecues" where whole roasted oxen were eaten and intoxicating liquors were freely dispensed. The appeal today is more to the intelligence of the voter and less to his passions.

25. Elections. In most states voters must be registered a certain number of days before an election. This is to enable persons to ascertain whether those registered are legal voters and if not to challenge their right to vote. Polling places are provided, judges and clerks selected, ballots printed and other preparations made in advance of the election. The room in which the election is held is usually divided by a a railing, within which are the officials and voting booths. The voter advances to the judges and is given a ballot (or ballots), having stamped "official ballot" on the back. He then goes to a booth and here privately marks it with a pencil or stamp as he wishes to vote. He then folds the ballot and hands it to a judge who deposits it in the ballot box. His name is checked on the registration list upon receiving the ballot and again on depositing it.

26. Election of President and Vice-President. This subject needs separate treatment as we have nothing else comparable to it and the process is often misunderstood.

(a) PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS. The method provided by the Constitution is to have each state choose, in any way the legislature may provide, a number of men (presidential electors), who are to choose the President and Vice-President. The idea of those who framed the Constitution was that these presidential electors would be more competent than the people to select suitable officers, and they supposed that the presidential electors would be independent in their choice. It immediately developed, however, that these presidential electors simply registered the choice of the people who selected them.

(b) ELECTORAL COLLEGE. In all of the states the presidential electors are chosen at a general election. In 1912 the voters of New York elected forty-five presidential electors (New York has two senators and forty-three representatives). In the same election South Dakota chose five (the state having two senators and three representatives in Congress). The group of presidential electors chosen by the state is called the *electoral college.*

The following table shows the number of representatives and senators in Congress, the electoral vote and the number of delegates to national conventions from each state:

	Rep.	Sen.	El.V.	Del.		Rep.	Sen.	El. V.	Del.
Ala.	10	2	12	24	Neb.	6	2	8	16
Ariz.	1	2	3	6	Nev.	1	2	3	6
Ark.	7	2	9	18	N. H.	2	2	4	8
Cal.	11	2	13	26	N. J.	12	2	14	28
Col.	4	2	6	12	N. M.	1	2	3	6
Conn.	5	2	7	14	N. Y.	43	2	45	90
Del.	1	2	3	6	N. C.	10	2	12	24
Fla.	4	2	6	12	N. D.	3	2	5	10
Ga.	12	2	14	28	Ohio	22	2	24	48
Ida.	2	2	4	8	Okla.	8	2	10	20
Ill.	27	2	29	58	Ore.	3	2	5	10
Ind.	13	2	15	30	Penn.	36	2	38	76
Ia.	11	2	13	26	R. I.	3	2	5	10
Kan.	8	2	10	20	S. C.	7	2	9	18
Ky.	11	2	13	26	S. D.	3	2	5	10
La.	8	2	10	20	Tenn.	10	2	12	24
Me.	4	2	6	12	Tex.	18	2	20	40
Md.	6	2	8	16	Utah	2	2	4	8
Mass.	16	2	18	36	Vt.	2	2	4	8
Mich.	13	2	15	30	Va.	10	2	12	24
Minn.	10	2	12	24	Wash.	5	2	7	14
Miss.	8	2	10	20	W. Va.	6	2	8	16
Mo.	16	2	18	36	Wis.	11	2	13	26
Mont.	2	2	4	8	Wyo.	1	2	3	6

(c) ELECTION DATES. (1) On the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November in 1904, 1908, 1912, 1916, etc., the voters of the states elect presidential electors.

(2) On the second Monday in January the presidential electors of a state meet at the state capitol and cast their ballots for President and Vice-President. Three sets of ballots are made, one is sent by mail to the president of the senate, Washington, D. C., another set is sent by a messenger and the third set is deposited with the nearest United States district judge. It is at this time that, strictly speaking, the President and Vice-President are elected, providing both receive majorities.

(3) On the second Wednesday of February the Senate and House of Representatives meet in the hall of representatives. The president of the senate opens the ballots in the presence of both houses, and tellers appointed by the houses read the ballots and count them. In case no one receives a majority (over one-half) of the electoral votes for President or Vice-President the House of Representatives and Senate decide the matter as described in the Constitution.

(4) On the 4th of March the men elected take the oath of office and assume their official duties.

27. The Short Ballot. There are so many candidates for so many offices that the average voter knows very little about any of them. Few men besides professional politicians can name even one-half of the men they have voted for after they have handed their ballot to the election judge, and of that half they know very little. Because of these conditions there has grown up a strong movement in the United States, supported by a large number of our best statesmen and safest leaders, to elect only those officers who have general administrative powers, having them appoint such officers as have clerical or technical duties. The county commissioners could appoint their own clerk (county auditor), a surveyor, coroner, register of deeds, etc. If we elected only a few officers at a time we would become far more familiar with their qualifications and our elections would be less dependent upon the political *boss* and political *machine*,—the people and not a small group of politicians would choose the officers.

"The short ballot principle has been endorsed by every living American writer on political science."

28. Practical Questions.

What are the qualifications of electors in your state? Suppose an elector is blind, how may he receive help in voting? In what states may women vote? Get sample ballots at the next election for illustrative purposes. Sample ballots are usually colored to prevent their being marked in advance and substituted for official ballots. Show how differences of opinion give rise to political parties. Are political parties necessary? May one carry partisanship too far? Why do most men vote the same party ticket as their fathers did? Ascertain how the ballots are counted and preserved. Who canvass the election returns — check over results from different voting precincts and officially declare results? How is an election contested? What is meant by a *watcher* or *challenger* at polling places? Who may not vote? Why?

It should be noted that citizenship and suffrage are entirely separate. The United States decides who may become citizens and the state decides who may vote. United States senators are now elected. How were they chosen prior to 1913? Get someone familiar with the convention system to explain how conventions are organized — temporary and permanent organization — and how they are conducted. Hold a mock national convention for the nomination of a candidate for President and Vice-President. Note that it is the custom of the Republican and Democratic parties to have twice as many delegates from each state as there are representatives and senators in congress. Delegates are also admitted from Territories though the latter have no vote for President and Vice-President.

29. Matters of Importance.

(a) TAXATION. A certain pupil reported his father's tax for the year 1915 as follows: "My father owns lots 5 and 6, in block 26, city of A———. These lots were valued by the assessor at $2,840 and $6,900 respectively. The tax rate was as follows:

State tax		1.00 mill
County General	1.40	
Bond Interest	.10	
Bridges	.35	
Mothers' Pensions	.10	
Special Salary	.25	
County Roads	.30	2.50 mill
School tax		6.90 mill
City tax		10.00 mill
Total tax rate		20.04 mill

"On these two lots he therefore paid taxes as follows:

State tax (1 mill or .001 x $9,740)	$ 9.74
County tax (2.5 mills or .0025 x $9,740)	24.35
School tax (6.9 mills or .0069 x $9,740)	67.21
City tax (10 mills or .01 x $9,740)	97.40
Total (20.4 mills or .0204 x $9,740)	198.70
To this was added a special sewer tax of	7.40

"This does not include his personal property tax. According to the laws of the state he was privileged to pay one-half of this before April 1st, 1916, and the other half before November 1, 1916. If not paid before those dates the unpaid tax becomes delinquent and entails an additional tax of one per cent each month.

"He pays all of his taxes to the county treasurer who remits the respective portions due the state treasurer, city treasurer, and school district treasurer. The tax rate for the state is determined by the State Tax Commission, the rate for the county by the Board of County Commissioners, the rate for the city by the Board of City Commissioners, and the rate for the school district by the Board of Education."

(b) IMPEACHMENTS. Was President Johnson impeached? When this question is asked at teachers' examinations the answers are almost equally divided between "yes" and "no." Impeachment is a formal accusation by the House of Representatives of high crimes, misconduct or offense on the part of a civil officer of the United States. Impeachment corresponds to an indictment or presentment by a grand jury or a criminal complaint. After a civil officer has been impeached by the House of Representatives he is tried by the Senate. To convict requires a two-thirds vote of the senators.

The following persons have been impeached (accused) by the house of representatives and tried by the senate:

John Pickering, U. S. Judge, found guilty, removed from office.
Samuel Chase, U. S. Judge, acquitted.
James Peck, U. S. Judge, acquitted.
W. W. Humphreys, U. S. Judge, found guilty, removed from office.
Andrew Johnson, President, acquitted.
W. W. Belknap, Secretary of War, acquitted.
Charles Swayne, U. S. Judge, acquitted.
Robert W. Archibald, U. S. Judge, found guilty, removed from office.

William Blount, a senator from Tennessee, was also impeached by the house of representatives, but the senate refused to try him on the grounds that a senator or representative is not subject to impeachment.

It is interesting to note that impeachment in England, where it originated in 1376, may be applied to any person excepting the king and any kind of punishment may be inflicted. In theory, "the king can do no wrong." His ministers are held responsible for all governmental acts.

(c) GRAND JURY. The grand jury investigates causes of crime and brings accusations against any who should be tried. The grand jury sits in secret and usually examines only the witnesses against a suspected person. This jury does not decide whether a person is guilty, but simply whether there is enough evidence against him to accuse him and have him arrested and tried. The accusation may take one of two forms. (1) An *indictment* (in-dite'ment) is an accusation drawn up by the state's attorney and approved by the grand jury. (2) A *presentment* is an accusation made by the grand jury independent of the state's (district or county) attorney. In the United States courts the grand jury consists of from fifteen to twenty-three men.

(d) PETIT JURY. It is called *petit* (from the French word for *small*) because it consists of but twelve men (in some states a jury may consist of six). It is the duty of the petit jury to hear evidence in trials and decide cases. Usually the jury must be unanimous in their agreement in a verdict. What are talesmen?

(e) PLURALITY, MAJORITY. In an election the one securing the highest number of votes is said to have a plurality; if over one-half the total number of votes, he has a majority. Example: A, 1,000 votes; B, 1,500; C, 1,800. C has a plurality, but not a majority. The total number of votes is 4,300. If C had received 2,151 votes he would have had a majority. In most elections a plurality elects.

(f) HOW A BILL BECOMES A LAW. The methods of legislation vary somewhat in different states though they follow, in the main, the procedure in congress.

(1) *Introduction.* A bill may be introduced in either house (save bills for revenue and bills of impeachment which originate in the house of representatives) by any member.

(2) *Committee Action.* The presiding officer reads its title and refers it to an appropriate committee. Here it is examined and its merits and demerits investigated. The committee may fail to report the bill back to the house unless, as is rarely done, a report is demanded by the house. The committee may also amend or otherwise modify it. If a bill is reported it is usually with the recommendation that "it do pass," though it may be reported adversely or "without recommendation."

(3) *Report to House.* After being reported back to the house by the committee it is read a second time. This "reading" is in full, not by title only. It is then placed upon the "calendar" to await its turn, unless the committee on rules sees fit to have it given earlier attention. The bill is then read the third time, by title only unless reading in full is demanded.

(4) *Debate.* The large number of representatives (435) makes it necessary to limit debate in a number of ways. Before a debate on a

bill begins the Speaker and the chairman of the committee having the bill in charge arrange the list of speakers for and against it. The chairman of the committee usually leads in thedebate and closes it, yielding portions of his time to other members in favor of the bill. The time assigned to those opposed to the bill is usually given to the leader of the minority party, who yields to those who have arranged to be heard in opposition. In the "committee of the whole," when the house acts informally as a huge committee, the Speaker leaves the chair, calling upon some other member to preside. Speeches are then limited to five minutes each. In the senate debate is unlimited, and any senator who can "get the floor" may keep it indefinitely.

(5) *Voting.* There are five methods of voting. (a) Ayes and Noes. This is *viva voce* ("by the living voice"). The presiding officer decides which side "seems to have it" by the volume of sound. (b) Rising vote. (c) Tellers. Members favoring the measure pass between two tellers, usually a prominent person favoring the bill and another who opposes it. After the tellers complete the count those opposing the measure pass and are counted. (d) Yeas and Nays. The roll is called and each vote recorded. (e) Ballot. In case of the election of a President by the house of representatives when no one receives a majority of the electoral votes (as it happened in 1801, 1825 and 1877) the vote is by ballot, each state having one vote. Similarly, when the senate elects a Vice-President the vote is by ballot.

Pairing. Two members who are on opposite sides may "pair" and agree that if one is absent when a vote is taken the other will not vote. Sometimes members are paired for a single vote and sometimes for an indefinite period. Pairs are usually announced and recorded that there may be no misunderstanding.

(6) *Engrossing.* The bill is then engrossed and sent to the other house where the same process is repeated. If amended in the latter house the bill must be returned again to the former house. In case of disagreement a joint conference committee is usually appointed. After the identical bill has passed both houses it is enrolled and submitted to the President.

(7) *Veto.* The President may approve the bill, may permit it to become a law without his signature (by ignoring the bill ten days) or may veto ("I forbid") the bill by returning it to the house in which it originated with his objections. In the latter case it requires a two-thirds vote of each house to enact the law. If congress sends a bill to the President within ten days of adjournment he may let the bill lie without action and it does not become law. This voiding a bill by neither signing it nor returning it with his objections is called the silent or *pocket* veto.

30. War and Peace. Many conditions in recent years have brought into prominence military and naval problems. The teacher cannot be too careful in developing a strong peace spirit, a hatred of jingoism and of war. Nevertheless, recent events demonstrate that civilization has not reached the disarmament stage. Uncle Sam still needs a strong right arm. The following subjects should be taught with the purpose of giving the pupils an intelligent conception of the governmental processes involved:

(a) DECLARATION OF WAR. Congress has power to declare war. This is done by passing a formal declaration that a state of war exists. The ambassador or minister from the foreign country is usually dismissed and our own recalled prior to the declaration of war. In most countries war may be declared by the ruler. This is a power which may be easily abused by a monarch possessing false ideals of national honor or national aggrandizement.

(b) LETTERS OF MARQUE AND REPRISAL. These are commissions granted to private persons in time of war permitting them to seize in the name of the government the persons and property of the enemy. A ship whose commander bears a letter of marque is called a privateer, and if captured he and his men must be treated as prisoners of war. Without the commission they would be treated as pirates and put to death. Privateering on land has long since been abandoned. In the war with Spain in 1898 the United States refused to commission privateers on the sea and notified Spain that we would not respect any such commissions issued by that country.

(c) RAISING ARMIES. Congress has power to raise and support armies but no appropriation of money shall be for a longer period than two years. The latter limitation does not apply to the navy and was included in the constitution to prevent the President or congress from abusing their military powers. In time of peace armies are raised by enrolling volunteers. In war the President may also call out the militia of the several states. During the Civil War conscription or draft was resorted to whereby men were drawn by lot for compulsory military service. The support of the army (and navy) includes food, clothing, equipment, transportation, forts, coast defenses, barracks, coaling stations, naval stations, the manufacture of arms and ammunition, etc. Until the war with Spain in 1898 the standing army was very small, less than 27,000 men. In 1901 the President was authorized to increase the number up to 100,000. After the World War the army strength was reduced to 175,000.

(d) OFFICERS OF THE ARMY AND NAVY. The President is commander-in-chief, the Secretary of War and Secretary of the Navy acting as the heads of the administration of these departments. The officers rank as follows:

NAVY	ARMY
Admiral	General
Vice-Admiral	Lieutenant-General
Rear-Admiral	Major-General
Commodore (title lapsed)	Brigadier-General
Captain	Colonel
Commander	Lieutenant-Colonel
Lieutenant-Commander	Major
Lieutenant	Captain
Lieutenant, junior grade	First Lieutenant
Ensign	Second Lieutenant

The salaries of officers vary from $10,000 for General of the Army and the same salary for Admiral, to $2,120 for Second Lieutenant and the same for Ensign. The office of Lieutenant-General was discontinued by Act of Congress in 1907. The regular salary increases after a certain amount of service. Officers may retire on three-fourths of their pay at the time of retirement, in the army at the age of sixty-four or after forty years of service, in the navy at the age of sixty-two or after forty-five years of service. The pay of privates is small.

(e) THE MILITIA. The unorganized militia includes every able bodied man between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. About 100,000 constitute the organized militia of the states, known as the National Guard. Six times in the history of the United States, 1794 (Whiskey Rebellion), 1812, 1861, 1862, 1863 and 1916 has the President called out the militia. Ordinarily the militia within a state is subject to the control of the governor. In the years previous to 1916, the militia, when called out by the President, could not be kept in service for more than nine months in any year, no commissioned officer or enlisted man being held beyond the term of his existing commission or enlistment. At the time of our trouble with Mexico in 1916, Congress passed an act which provides that the President may call out the militia for such term as he may deem necessary; the term of service being only limited by the time specified in the call.

(f) WEST POINT MILITARY ACADEMY. This famous military school was established in 1802. Each Congressional district and territory is entitled to two cadets at the Academy. The District of Columbia is entitled to four. Each state is also allowed four cadets from the state at large, and eighty are admitted from the United States at large; 40 of these are controlled by the President personally. Nominees must be between the ages of 17 and 22. Each cadet receives about $700 per year to cover expenses during his four-year course. Upon graduation each one receives an appointment as second lieutenant in the army.

(g) ANNAPOLIS NAVAL ACADEMY. This school was established in 1845. Two midshipmen are allowed for each senator, representative and delegate and two for the District of Columbia, one from Porto Rico and five at large. Candidates must be between 16 and 20 years of age and pass suitable examinations. A six-year course is given, the last two being at sea. Six hundred dollars are allowed yearly for each midshipman and upon graduation he is given a commission as lieutenant of junior grade.

(h) ADVANCED SCHOOLS. Other schools of instruction for the army and navy are maintained at the War College at Washington, the Naval War College at Newport, Rhode Island, the General Service and Staff College at Ft. Levenworth, Kansas, the Cavalry and Light Artillery School at

Ft. Riley, the School for Submarine Defense, Ft. Totten, and the Naval Torpedo School at Goat Island.

31. Moot Courts. When the study of civil government is dull and uninteresting to a pupil it is usually because it is abstract to him. The pupil has had little experience in actual governmental affairs and the terms employed in the subject are often meaningless. This is probably more applicable to the judicial department than to any other. It is an excellent plan to make the subject concrete by conducting a mock trial. Extreme care is necessary to prevent the exercise from becoming a farce instead of an illustrative lesson.

As a rule the teacher should act as judge and if pupils of the seventh grade are pitted against those of the eighth grade the selection of witnesses, lawyers, etc., will readily be disposed of. The author has had better success with civil than with criminal cases.

Example. A sues B for the recovery of a watch or $10 damages, claiming that she sold the watch to B but that B has failed to pay $10 of the amount agreed upon, having paid $5 upon receipt of the watch. B claims that the watch does not measure up to the standard guaranteed, is unreliable and not worth the $5 already paid. "Witnesses" can testify as to the agreement and the guaranty and "experts" can testify to the value of the watch. The pupil who acts as counsel for the plaintiff can secure from some attorney the necessary blank summons and complaint and the defendant's counsel can similarly secure a form for the answer. The case should not be made too complicated and much haggling over "objections" to the answers of questions in the examination or cross-examination of witnesses should not be permitted. The teacher should not be discouraged if many blunders are made, as they are quite sure to be made by the children. They will at least get a definite notion as to what a petit jury is, and such terms as defendant, complaint, summons, charge, etc., will carry concrete associations.

32. Moot Legislature. The work in civil government and that in English, debate and public speaking can be happily correlated by organizing the upper grades into a make-believe state legislature or congress or one branch of either.

Thus if the United States House of Representatives is organized pupils will represent different states. The presiding officer will be addressed as "Mr. Speaker" (if the Senate, "Mr. President.)" Bills could be introduced, though those of a partisan character should not be debated by the children. Pupils of the author once organized a Senate which met twice per week from four o'clock until four thirty. Other pupils were permitted to remain "in the galleries" as spectators. Bills and resolutions were introduced, debated and passed or defeated. Copies of the Congressional Record were obtained from our member of Congress and the procedure in both houses was studied most diligently. It is needless to say that great interest was aroused and that the pupils made surprising progress in ability to debate.

33. Moot City. In a manner similar to the foregoing, the school can be organized into a city government. In this case all of the pupils can be included and the organization may assume a most valuable reality in student government. "Ordinances" in the form of rules for the school may be introduced, debated, passed and enforced by the pupils themselves, subject, of course, to the absolute veto power of the teacher. While in many ways the form of city government is not usually the best one for student government in a school, the necessary adaptations will readily suggest themselves. Many features will gradually be modified to meet school needs and conditions.

Before organizing the "school city" great care should be taken in explaining many conditions in advance and in selecting officers. It is usually best to take up the matter in a serious way at the outset with the thought of securing the coöperation of the pupils in matters of discipline and of placing some responsibility upon the pupils themselves. It is well to imitate, so far as practicable, the plan of government in the city or town in which the school is located. If the legislative body is a council made up of aldermen elected from different wards, the school council could consist of "aldermen" elected by each grade. In this way the necessary adaptations may be made.

Matters which may be suitable for school legislation by the moot city, in addition to those of discipline, may be such as pertain to the care of buildings and grounds. Instead of a commissioner of streets a commissioner of public grounds may be substituted. Instead of a "road tax" there may be levied a "public grounds" tax, this to be worked out by the pupils in cleaning the grounds, setting out shrubbery, caring for flower gardens, etc.

34. References.

American Government and Politics. C. A. Beard.
The American Commonwealth. James Bryce.
Constitutional Studies, State and Federal. James Schouler.
The State. Woodrow Wilson.
Local Government in Counties, Towns and Villages. J. A. Fairlie.
City Government in the United States. Frank J. Goodnow.
American Government. B. A. Hinsdale.
The American City; A Problem in Democracy. Delos F. Wilcox.
American Municipal Progress. Charles Zeublin.
The United States Supreme Court. David J. Brewer.
This Country of Ours. B. Harrison.
Constitutional Government in the United States. Woodrow Wilson.
Government by the People. R. H. Fuller.

TEST QUESTIONS

1. To what local needs can you call the attention of the pupils to show the necessity for government?

2. What is a republic? a pure democracy? Do we have any pure democracies in the United States?

3. What are the departments of our national government? What departments in your state government?

4. Explain how it is that American citizens live under a twofold government. Is this true of the citizens of Canada?

5. What are the county officers in your county? How can you lead your pupils to become interested in the duties of these officers?

6. Why should pupils use school property and other public property as carefully as they do their own?

7. What United States officials do you and the pupils most frequently meet in the discharge of their duties?

CHAPTER FOUR

RONALD F. DAVIS

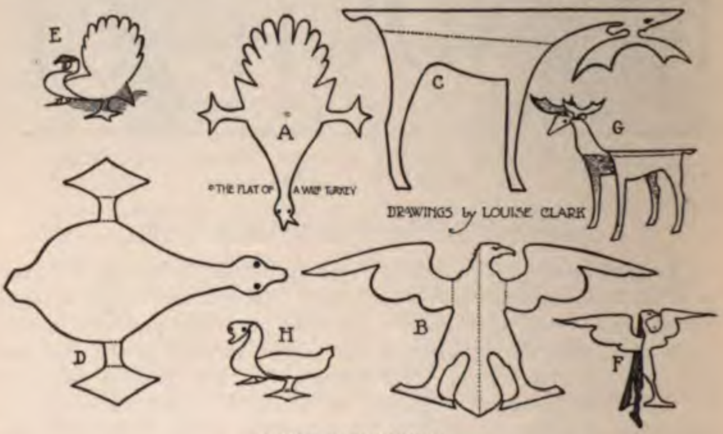
Managing Editor, Something-to-Do

1. Introduction. The best part of all human knowledge has come by exact and studied observation made through the senses of sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch. The most important part of education has always been the training of the senses through which that best part of knowledge comes. This training has two precious results in the individual besides the faculty of accurate observation—one the acquisition of some sort of skill, the other the habit of careful reflection and measured reasoning which results in precise statement and record. —CHARLES W. ELIOT.

The lessons in this chapter have been arranged for children of the primary and intermediate grades. The materials brought into use are somewhat varied in character, that the teacher may become familiar with constructive processes in different mediums. In making out these lessons the needs of both rural and city school children have been considered to some extent. The exercises are not arranged in order of difficulty but are grouped in two respective classes, primary and intermediate.

No teacher should attempt to present any problem in this chapter without first studying its difficulties and constructing it from start to finish. Make a careful outline on paper for each successive step throughout the work, and never begin a second operation until the first has been thoroughly executed.

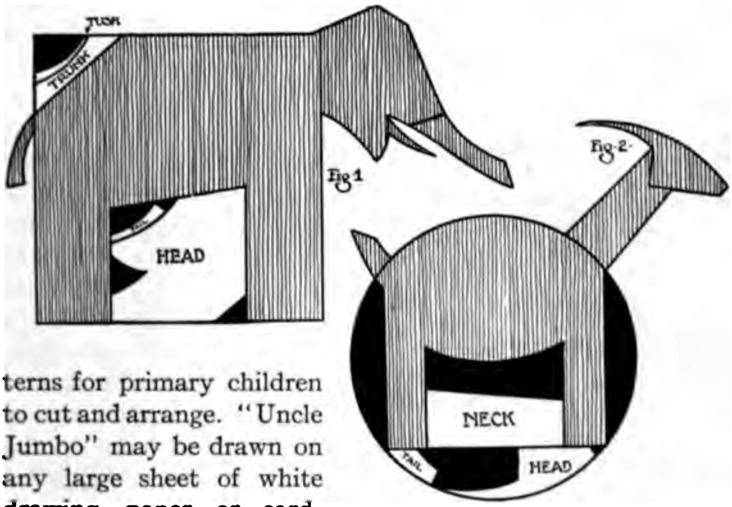
2. Tracing and Cutting. Here are shown four interesting patterns which may be traced, cut out of paper and folded into shape by primary grade children. *A* shows a wild turkey—*B* a peaceful war eagle—*C* a reindeer, and *D* an Easter duck. In making the wild turkey, draw the flat or pattern shown at *A* on a piece of white light weight cardboard or light drawing paper. Next, color with crayons or paints and bend the parts so that it will stand as shown in the sketch *E*. This lesson makes an interesting favor for the Thanksgiving table. The names of the guests may be written or printed on each Turkey's tail before bending. To make the Peaceful War Eagle, fold an oblong piece of drawing paper about 8 x 4 inches so that it will form two square leaves like a booklet. Next draw one-half of the eagle, cut out and open. *B* shows both sides the same, except the head which is cut after opening. Fold again at all dotted lines to form the figure at *F* which stands alone. The drawing *C* is made in the same manner, both sides of the Reindeer being cut at the same time from a folded piece of white drawing paper. Each project calls forth a lesson in coloring. Curl the head of the Reindeer as you did the



FIRST EXERCISES

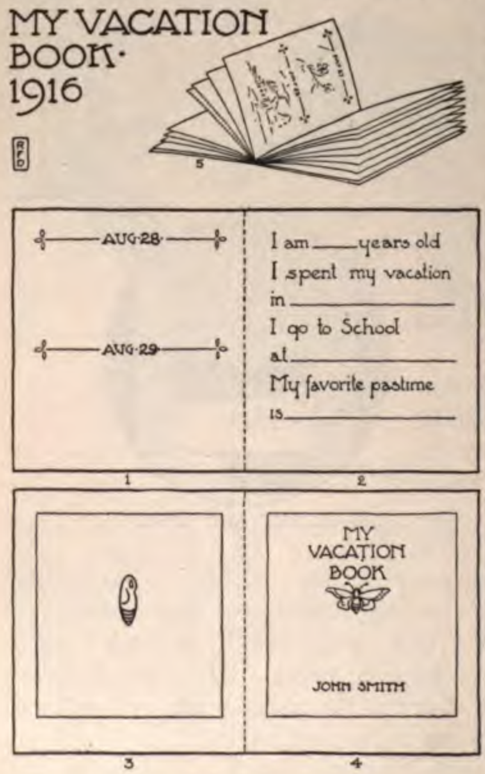
Turkey, and bend the horns upward like the sketch *G*. *D* is made similar to *A*. After cutting out the duck, lay him on his back and fold the legs upward and the feet outward like *H*.

3. Elephant and Goat. These drawings show two easy patterns for primary children to cut and arrange. "Uncle Jumbo" may be drawn on any large sheet of white drawing paper or cardboard. Cut out all the white parts, marked tusk, tail, trunk, and head. Paste these in position as shown in the sketch and the elephant is finished. "Great Big Billy Goat Gruff" is drawn on a circular card or disc of drawing paper. The black parts are waste in both figures. Cut out the neck, head, and tail and arrange for and fasten them in position.



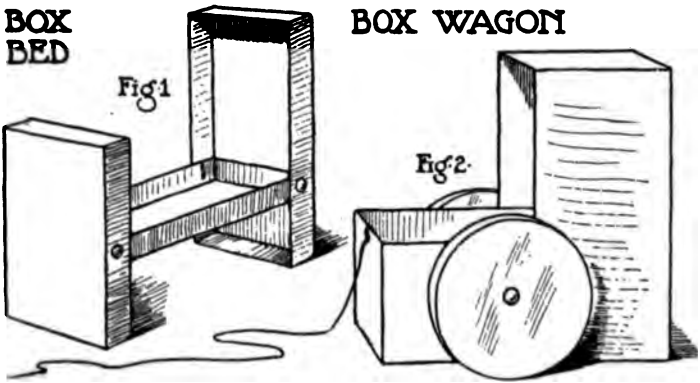
ELEPHANT AND GOAT

4. Booklet. The vacation booklet which is illustrated, can be made by most any primary grade child. Take nine sheets of paper 6 x 9 inches and fold them as indicated by the dotted lines. Place these sheets inside one another and sew them at the crease. The front outside cover (first leaf) is shown at 4, and the back at 3; the second page of this first leaf, the cover, is left blank. The third page (first of second leaf) is shown at 2; the next to the last inside page of the book is shown at 1. (The last inside page is the inside of the cover sheet.) The fourth page (behind the title page) is left blank. July 1, comes at the top of page 5 (third leaf); and July 2, in the middle of that page. July 3, at the top of page 6, July 4, in the middle of page 6, etc. Ask the children to make a resolution to put something in this book every day during July and August. Have them write about something they did, or ask them to draw something they saw.



5. Box Bed and Box Wagon. A box bed and a box wagon like the drawings in Figs. 1 and 2 may easily be made as follows: For the bed take a half pound candy box, two covers, one cover cut a third off to make a footboard. Lay the box on a table or desk. Stand the covers and fit them to the ends of the box. Slide the box up a distance about equal to its height, and fasten it to the covers on both sides with brass fasteners, paste, or glue. Tiny bedclothes, a mattress and pillows may be made by the children who care to bring odd pieces of cloth to school.

The wagon in Fig. 2 is made from two match boxes, two ribbon bolts, and two one-inch brass fasteners. First slip the box lying on the desk into the standing box and glue them together. Next make a hole through the bolts and the middle of the inside box as shown in the sketch. The hole may be cut clean and round by twisting a pair of sharp pointed scissors. Push in the fasteners and bend back the ends to hold the bolts securely to the sides of the box. The fasteners should not be pressed too tightly, as the bolts must be allowed to revolve freely. Attach a string and the wagon is complete.



BOX BED AND BOX WAGON

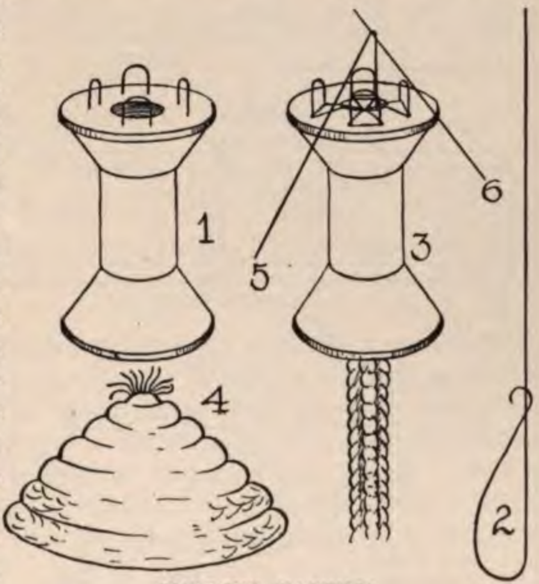
6. Feather Dart. The toy pictured is a simple feather dart that children enjoy playing with on stormy days. The materials required are: one long horse-shoe nail; one cork about one inch in diameter and two inches long; and three or four feathers. Press the horse-shoe nail through the cork from the wider end and force it clear through until its head is even with the end of the cork. Now place the feathers in the wider end of the cork, first starting a hole with a nail or other sharp instrument. These darts should be thrown against a soft board upon which the target is placed. When the dart hits the bull's-eye the other darts are aimed at it in an attempt to dislodge it. Whoever dislodges the dart gets a double count of points for his bull's-eye. The dart in the bull's-eye is withdrawn from the target as soon as each has had one throw at it.

Another form of dart may be made by using a match, a pin, a bit of paper, and a piece of thread. First burn the head off a large match. Tie a pin firmly to one end of the match by winding about it with thread or an elastic. The elastic is better, since it adds a little to the weight of the dart. The point of the pin should extend about half way beyond the end of the match. Split the other end of the match carefully with a knife blade just enough to hold two small squares of writing paper which should be slipped into the crack. These squares of paper should not be over half an inch wide. Now separate the edges of the squares with the fingers, bending them so that the outer edges stand somewhat in the form of an X. These papers then serve as feathers do on arrows, and make the tiny dart go straight to its mark. Light as the dart is, it can be thrown across the room so as to pierce a paper target, or even to stick into soft wood. A target made of a sheet of typewriting paper may serve as a mark.

FEATHER DART

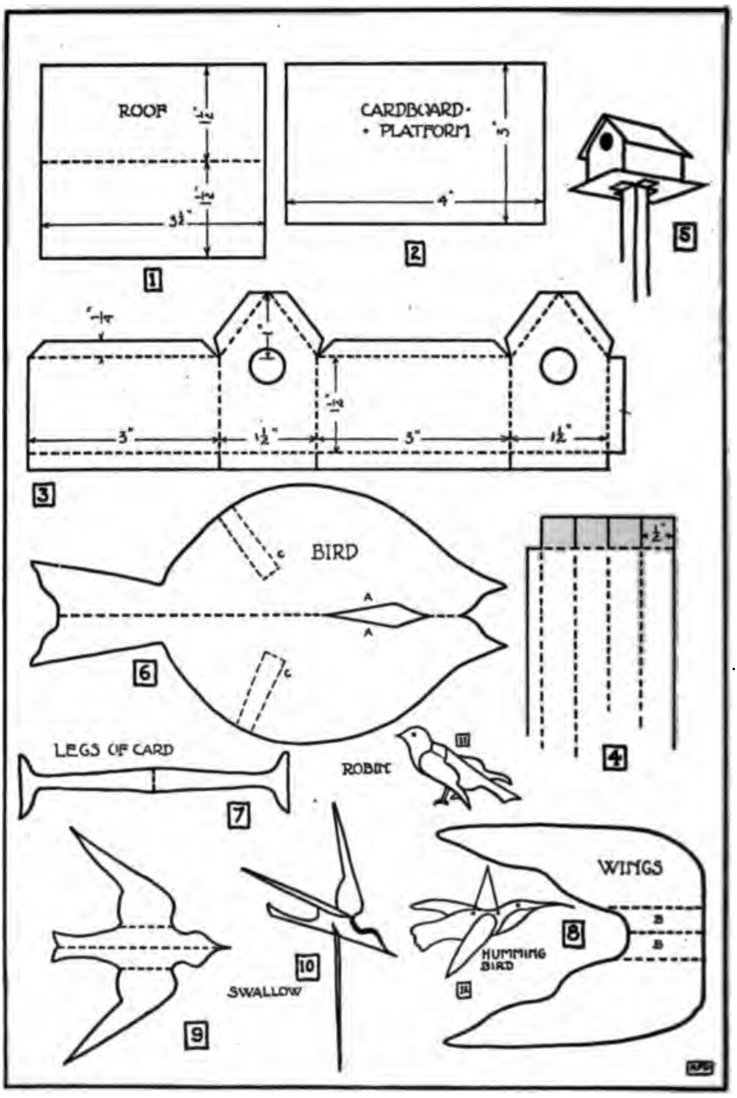
The circles of the target may be marked so that an exact score may be kept.

7. Knitting Machine. A knitting machine which will make the reins and the doll's cap shown in the drawing given below may be bought at most any store where dry goods are on sale. If a knitting machine is not available, one may be made by the use of a large empty spool. Be sure to select one with a large hole through it or your knitting will not pull well. Secure four staples or carpet tacks and drive them into one end of the spool so that they will be the same distance apart, as shown in Fig. 1. Next take a piece of wire about six inches long or a hairpin and bend it to look like Fig. 2. This is for the needle. Now wind some twine or colored worsted (preferably the latter) into a ball. Wind the end once around each of the four staples and draw it down through the hole in the spool. Now carry the worsted along to the left, in front of the first staple, and hold it against the side of the spool with the thumb. With the needle in your right hand (Fig. 6) draw the lower stitch of the worsted along to the left by the next staple, and do the same thing in front of the upper stitch and up over the staple (Fig. 3). Carry over again, and so on around and around the spool. Hold the spool and the worsted in the left hand (Fig. 5). On looking down into the spool you should see a network like a spider's web. As you work, gently pull the end of the worsted which comes out at the bottom of the spool. Make the reins about three yards in length. After you remove the reins from the spool, sew through the loops and fasten the ends together very securely with a large-eyed needle. Bells may be added as the children desire. To make the cap in Fig. 4 knit a long piece like the reins, and sew together while winding in the shape of a coil. Add the tassel and the doll's cap is complete.



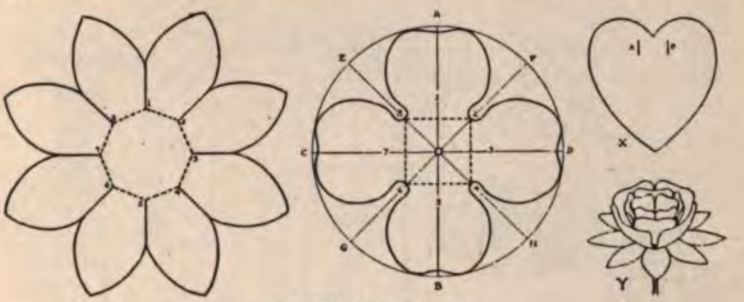
KNITTING MACHINE

8. Bird House. A craft lesson in paper, suitable for a



BIRD HOUSE

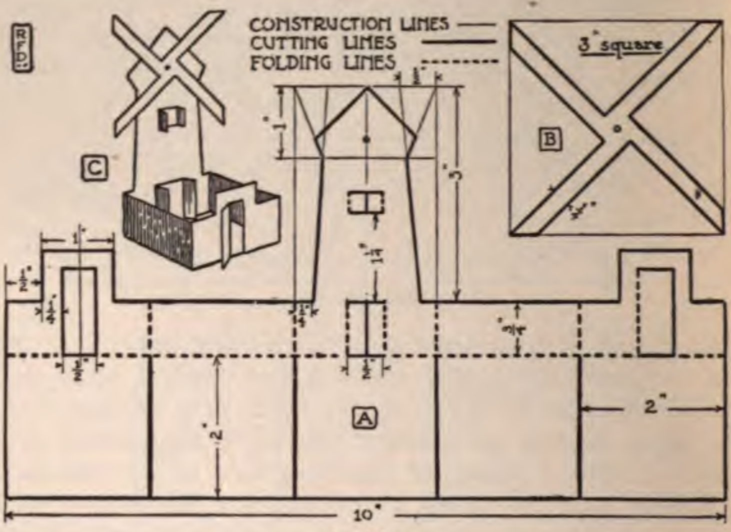
spring subject may be seen in Figs. 1 to 5. **These diagrams** illustrate the making of a bird house having **a post,** a platform and a roof. They may be made in the flat for the younger ones, but older children will like to make them in the round and perhaps to draw the pair of birds who shall live there, and cut them from paper. Figs. 6 to 10 represent samples of birds that will stand up alone. The two halves of 6 pasted together, with the legs 7, inserted as indicated at *C*, and the wings, 8, pasted at *B* and attached at *A*, as shown in 11, will give a standing bird. A paper swallow on a split toothpick is represented at 9 and 10, and a suspended humming bird at 12. All such problems as these should be of particular interest to rural school children who have a good opportunity for studying local birds.



VALENTINE ROSE

9. Valentine Rose. A valentine rose like Fig. Y may be made by first tracing around a saucer or a little plate to get a circle. Next rule the lines *AB* and *CD*. Now find the half-way points, *EF* and *GH*. Measure out from the center one inch on these lines, to find the points 2, 4, 6, and 8. Copy the curves as shown in the diagrams. Cut out the petals in one piece. Color both sides like the rose the children love best. Make two other patterns the same way. Next draw the sepals — the leaf-piece. Proceed as you did for the petal piece, only locate all the points, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. Color this piece light green on both sides. Lay the three petal pieces on the sepal piece and put the brass fastener down through the middle. Fold the parts upward on the dotted lines until the whole looks like the paper rose in Y. By pinching each petal you can make it look more like the natural flower.

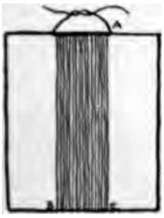
Figure X shows a heart pattern which may be cut out traced and repeated to form a St. Valentine necklace. Cut about twenty of these hearts and make the slits at *A* and *B*. Color all hearts alike, any color the children desire; or color ten a light tone and ten darker. String them all on a white ribbon, or some color you think would harmonize and look pretty.



A MILL

10. Mill. A mill makes a good lesson in paper construction. The mill with its yard and gates complete may be made from one sheet of drawing paper or oak tag about 9 x 12 inches. By pasting all of the squares together to form the floor of the yard, the children will find the mill stands securely. The windows and doors may be opened and closed on the dotted folding lines.

11. Peter and Polly. Peter and Polly or the "Bedtime Dolly Twins" are interesting. The lower grade children will enjoy making these dolls out of Germantown worsted. They should be allowed to select their favorite color. The other materials necessary for this lesson are a bone crochet hook, No. 4, a small piece of twine or string, and a piece of stout cardboard about eight inches long. To make the dolls: first, wind the worsted into a ball. Now carefully wind a large part of it over the cardboard as in Fig. 1. Be sure that the winding is done very evenly. Take a piece of twine and put under the yarn at the top *A*, and tie a hard knot. Cut through the worsted at the lower edge, *B* to *C*, and the card will fall out. Then tie a piece of twine about 2 inches from the top for the neck. Separate some yarn for the arms *D-D* in Fig. 2. Cut arms off to right length, and tie at wrists. Next tie waist line. Thread a large-eyed needle with black darning cotton and sew in the eyes, nose and mouth. To make the cap, look at Figs. 4 and 5. After you have made the knot, put through your crochet hook as at Fig. 4 and make a chain of five stitches, Fig. 5. Join them in a circle by drawing the last loop through the first one made. Now put two stitches in every stitch already made for two rows around.. On the third



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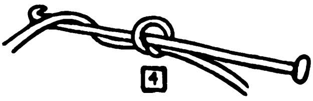

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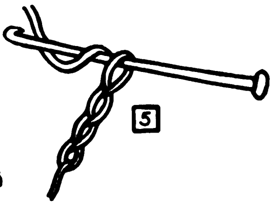

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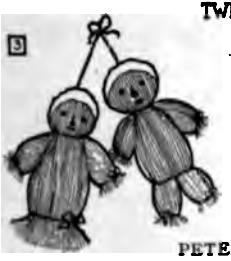
THE DOLLY TWINS



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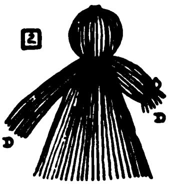
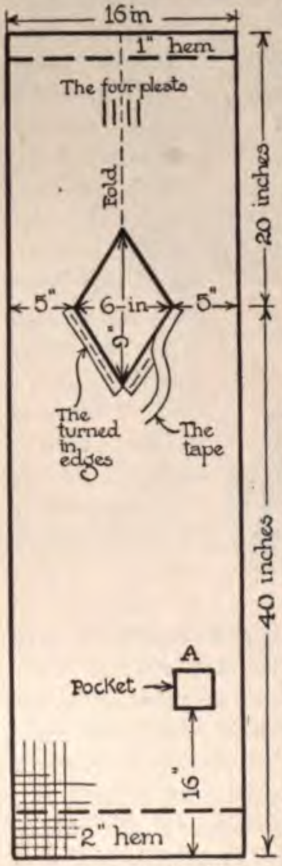


2

PETER AND POLLY

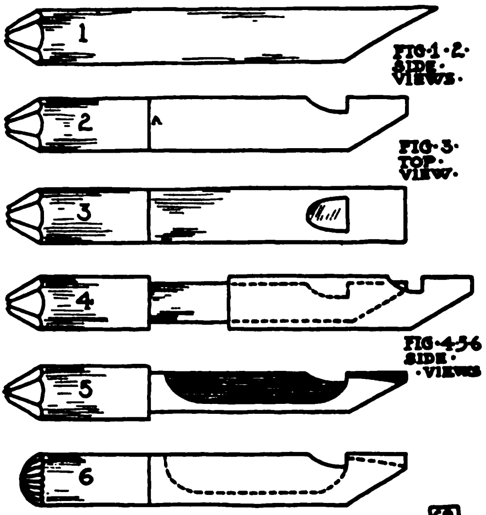
row put two in one stitch, then one in next, two in next, and so on. When the cap is large enough to fit on the doll's head, fasten the worsted. Crochet a chain about 8 inches long, fasten to top of the cap very securely. Lastly sew the cap on dolly with a long worsted needle, threaded with worsted.

12. Fudge Apron. Secure two yards of either red or blue toweling. Measure off 60 inches and cut straight across on the plaid. Cut two pieces across the end of the cloth, three inches wide, to fold and sew together for the belt. Also cut two six-inch squares for a holder to put in the pocket. Find a piece of tape or bias seam binding to face the neck. Use a No. 8 needle and No. 60 white thread. Study the diagram carefully and follow the directions indicated by the dimensions and arrows. First turn the ends over about one-fourth and crease. Then turn up the hems and crease. Baste the hems and then hem them next, fold the cloth through the middle and cut out the neck. Turn in the edges and baste carefully, being sure not to stretch the cloth. Baste on the tape or facing and hem down both edges. Lay four pleats, four inches from the hem in the middle of the back. Fold the strip for the belt and sew the edges together over and over. Work a buttonhole in one end and sew the button on the other. Sew the belt down over the pleats and straight across the back. Last of all, make a hem



FUDGE APRON

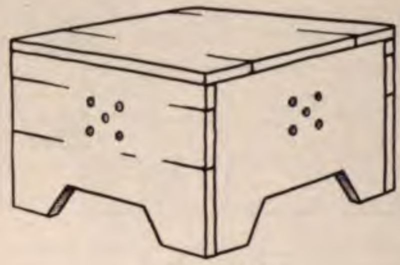
across the top of the pocket and after turning in and basting the edges, baste onto the apron and hem the sides down. If you wish to make a holder to slip into the pocket (A) baste the two squares of cloth together, after putting a piece of heavy cloth between, turn in the edges, and sew over and over.



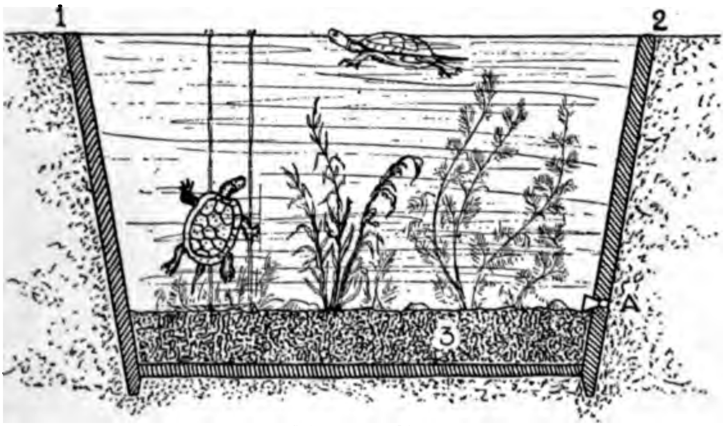
WILLOW WHISTLE

13. Willow Whistle. In the spring when the sap runs freely, the younger boys will enjoy making a willow whistle like the one shown in the drawing. A live willow stick about one-half inch in diameter and six inches long is cut from the tree. Then the end is slanted at an angle like Fig. 1. Next square off the point to look like Fig. 2, and cut a notch through the bark into the wood as shown in Fig. 3. Score a line (A) with the knife through the bark the whole way around. Tap the bark gently all over the surface from the score line to the right end with the side of the knife handle. Be very careful that you do not break the bark at any point. Hold one end in the left hand and the other in the right, and twist to loosen the bark from the wood. The bark must not be broken. Slip the bark cap off the end as shown in the sketch, Fig. 4. Now cut away the shaded parts of the wood, Fig. 5. Moisten the surface and slip the cap back on Fig. 6. The whistle is now ready to try. Finish by smoothing up the left end with a jackknife.

14. Footstool. Have the boys bring to school some good stout boxes made of thick wood. The first operation should be to drive some additional nails to hold all the parts together securely. Next cut out a piece from each side as seen in the picture. Bore the five holes in each side with a three-fourths inch or seven-eighths inch bit, thus forming a simple rosette design. Some boys will doubtless prefer to make a design of their own, either by boring or sawing. Smooth the whole stool with coarse sandpaper. Finish with stain or paint. A very comfortable stool may be made by making a cover of burlap. This should be cut to fit the top of the stool and hemmed about one-half inch all around. Padding may be made by placing two or three pieces of an old bedquilt underneath the burlap. Tack all edges down with 8 oz. tacks about an inch apart. If possible to secure brass-headed tacks the work will appear much handsomer.

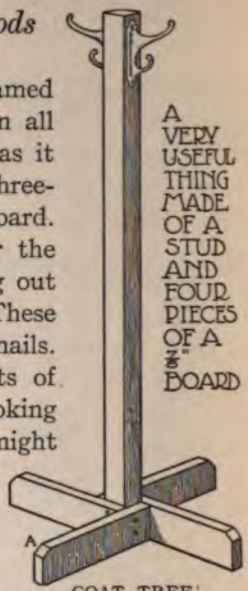

FOOTSTOOL

15. Turtle Pond. A Turtle Pond like the one shown in the picture may be made by either boys or girls. This is a more interesting problem for the rural school children who can easily locate a tub in 'a part of the school yard. The turtles' home should first be made comfortable with plenty of water to swim in and good sunshine for basking. Get an old tight gasoline or kerosene barrel and saw it through the middle. This will make two good ponds. If a barrel is not available an old wash tub will answer the purpose, in fact anything that will hold water will do nicely. Before sinking the tub into the ground, wash it out thoroughly and bore a small hole in the side at *A* about 12 inches from the top. Find a cork and fit it to the hole from the inside. This is for drainage. Whenever the water gets dirty or discolored the cork should be removed, and clean water run into the tub. Find a bright sunny spot in which to dig the hole and set the pond. The edge of the tub is represented in the cross-section sketch at 1 and 2. This edge should come flush with the earth's level. Place a layer of clean white sand in the bottom as shown at 3, as far up as the drainage hole. Get a few water plants from some brook and set them in the sand. These will help to keep the water fresh. The tub should be filled with water very slowly so that the sand and plants will not be disturbed. Lastly place a high fence around the pond for a yard. The turtles such as those found by any boy or girl in nearby ponds will eat earthworms, ant eggs, lean meat, and often bread and cracker crumbs. Remove everything that is not eaten right away, as food spoils the water if it remains too long.



TURTLE POND

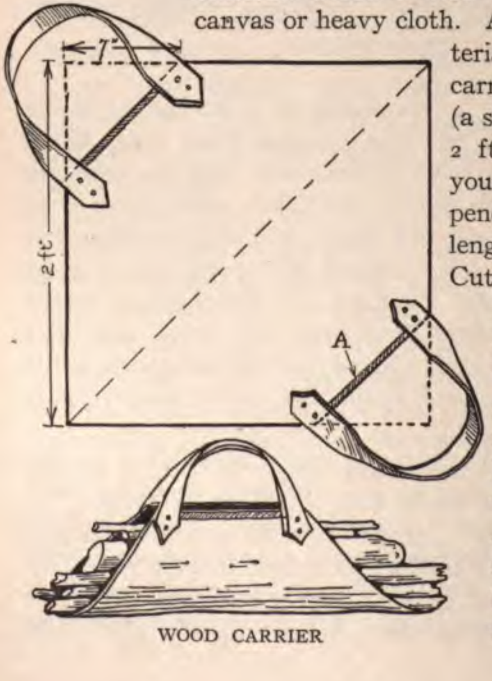
16. Coat Tree. The coat tree forms a very useful project which can be worked out by any grammar grade boy who knows how to measure, saw, plane, and nail. The dimensions are not given in the diagram for the reason that each pupil should make his own "tree" the height which best suits him. The upright or standard is an ordinary 2 x 4-inch stud like


A VERY USEFUL THING MADE OF A STUD AND FOUR PIECES OF A 7/8" BOARD
A

COAT TREE

those used in putting up the common framed houses. The stud should be planed on all sides. It may be made square or left as it is. The floor rests or feet are cut from three-fourths-inch or seven-eighths-inch board. The lower edge may be left straight or the boys can make a sort of foot by sawing out a piece on the under side of each. These feet may be fastened by screws or nails. Cut off the corners like *A*. Two coats of white enamel will make a good looking finish or if oak is used, the costumer might be stained and waxed or shellaced.

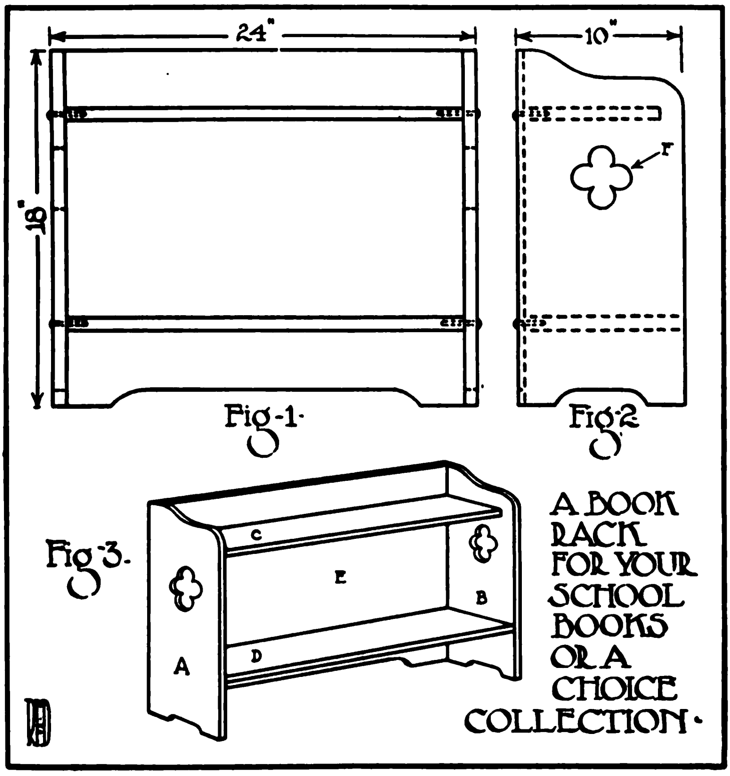
17. Wood Carrier. This wood carrier may be made from an old piece of carpet, a rug, an old sail, or any other material which is like canvas or heavy cloth. After finding the material for the body of the carrier, cut out the shape (a square) either $1\frac{1}{2}$ ft., 2 ft., or larger to suit yourself. The size depends of course upon the length of the wood used. Cut off two of the corners by measuring about 7 inches toward the center on each side and connecting these points. Bind these edges with a heavy braid, *A*. Next find two strips of strong leather about two feet in length, and



WOOD CARRIER

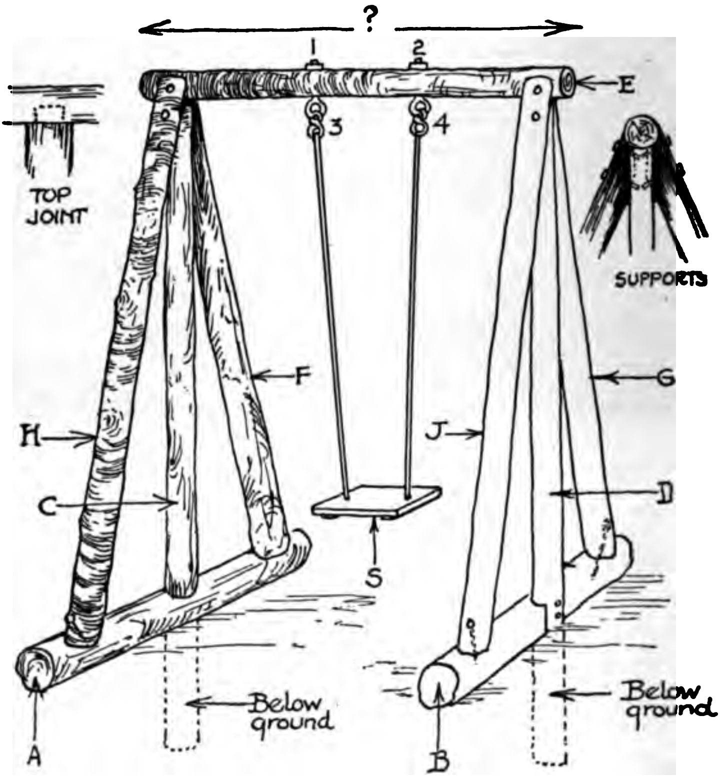
an inch or two wide. Attach these with rivets or with shoemaker's needle and thread, first making the holes with a small awl. Now sew these handles at the corners. Old trunk straps make excellent handles.

18. Book-Rack. This diagram shows a suitable book-rack



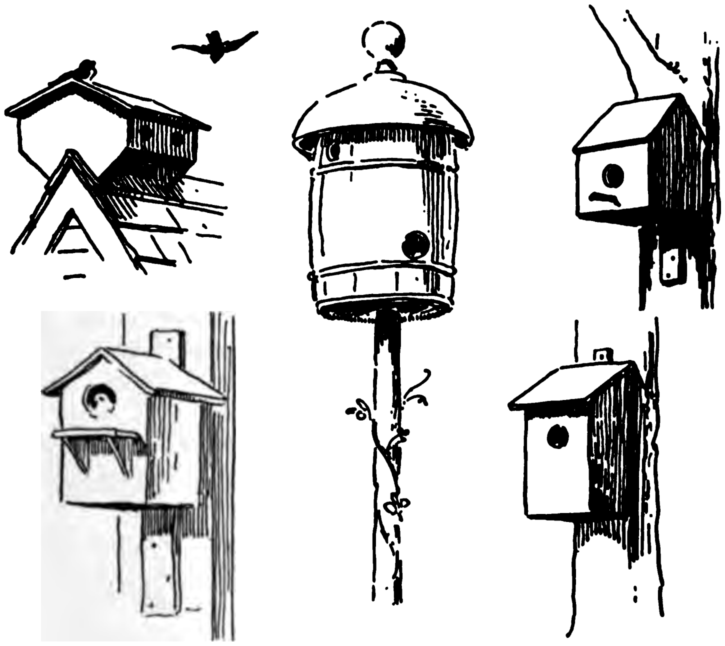
BOOK-RACK

for either the home or a country schoolroom. In the two upper drawings, Figs. 1 and 2, the dimensions are given for the length, width and thickness. This project may be made from any wood which has an even grain and is free from knots. For the shelves and side pieces five-eighths inch wood will be desirable. The back *E* may be made from pieces one-half inch thick. First, shape up the two sides *A* and *B*. Next, make the shelves—top one eight inches wide, lower one ten inches wide. Fasten the shelves and sides together with screws as shown in the drawings. Before putting together, make a simple design in each side piece as indicated at *F*. This particular one was made by boring four holes with an auger bit. Fasten the back *E* to the shelves and ends with either nails or screws, and bore four small screw holes in *E* for fastening the rack to the wall. To finish, sandpaper, stain and wax or shellac.



SWING

19. Swing. These diagrams suggest the making of a simple swing for the rural school yard. The dimension line with the (question mark) is placed to suggest that there may be several swings hung by making this log *E* any length desired. All parts are made from ordinary straight limbs or trunks of trees cut as follows: *A-B* about 7 ft., *C-D* 9½ ft., *E* about 6 ft., or any length, depending upon the number of swings. *F-G-H-J* are the braces or supports and should be cut about 10½ ft. in length and fitted to the top and posts *C-D* as shown in the diagram. The eye bolts are fastened at 1 and 2 and then the ropes with hooks are hung at 3 and 4. *S* shows the seat which may be made from one piece of stock 8 inches wide, 1 inch thick and 16 inches long. Bore two holes and tie knots in the ends of the rope to hold the seat. The dotted parts of *C* and *D* show where the posts are driven into the ground after the

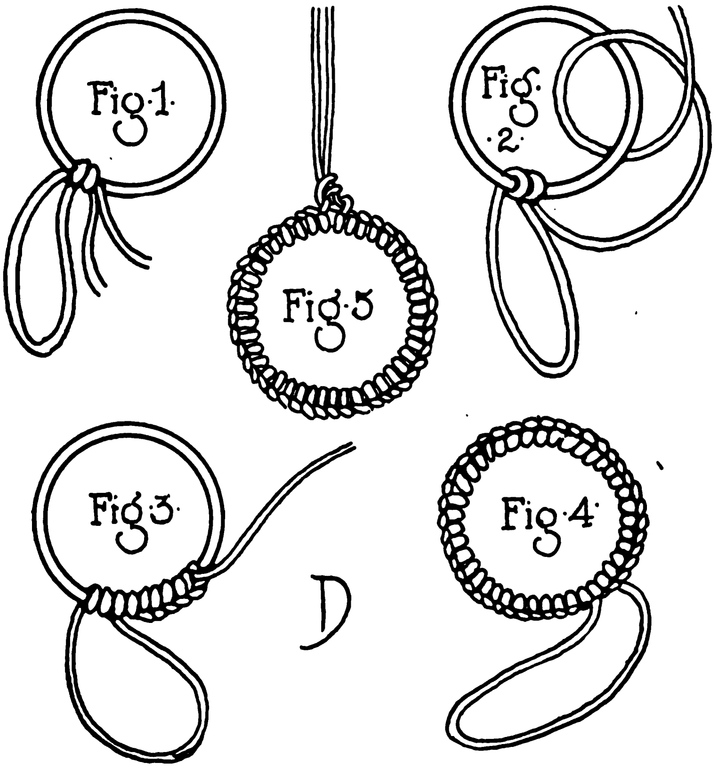


BIRD HOUSES

piece has been cut in the side of each one in order to fit snugly against *A* and *B*. Boys who are at all handy with tools will find the school swing an interesting problem, and one which will be much appreciated by the pupils and their parents. Most boys will want to experiment with the construction of the swing. Therefore, these diagrams and directions are merely offered as an incentive to approach the problem. Dressed lumber or iron tubing is too expensive a form of construction for use in an average country school yard. The rough timbers illustrated can usually be secured near at hand or at a moderate cost.

20. Bird Houses. Here are five different bird houses which can easily be made by boys and girls in the upper grammar grades. The designs were all worked out by Mr. Henry Turner Bailey and the real houses are now on the grounds of his summer home. All but the central one were made from weather-worn dry goods boxes. The central house was made from a nail keg with an old chopping tray for the roof and the top of a piazza post nailed on for an ornament. The post on which trails a pretty vine, runs up through the bottom of the keg to the top. The inside of the keg is divided into several sections or compartments so that more than one family can make a home there. In making the other homes, the end pieces and the bottom should be constructed of thicker wood than the sides and roof. Accurate work on these problems is not absolutely necessary as the birds enjoy the rustic old shelter just as much as if it were well mitred and joined together.

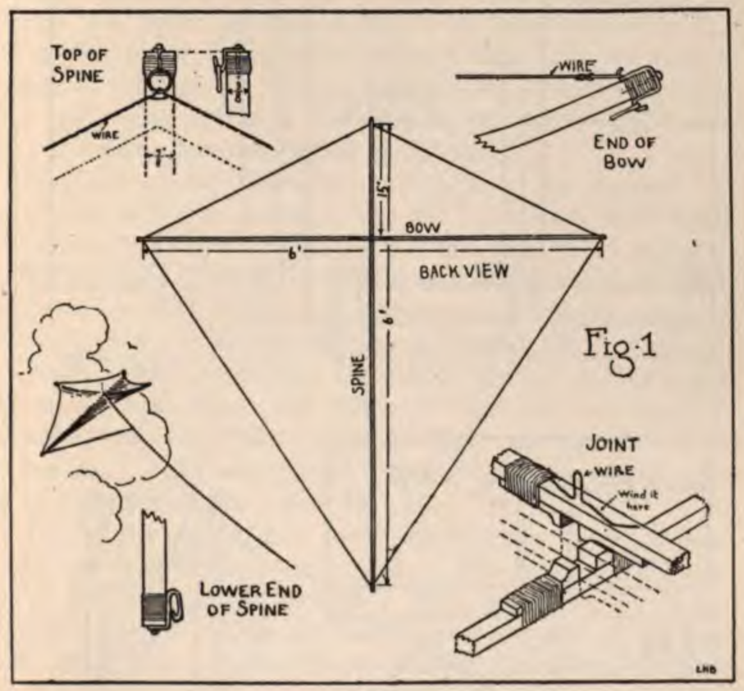
21. Curtain Pull. The drawings shown in the five figures on this plate illustrate the making of an ordinary string curtain pull. The problem is one which will interest the girls in particular. It often becomes necessary to repair these "pulls" which wear out with constant usage. The materials necessary to make a curtain pull like the one in the sketch are, a one-inch brass ring, and one and a half yards of heavy string. This string may be any color desired and should be selected to harmonize with the curtains and draperies. In beginning the work, double the cord back twelve inches and tie it on the ring so that four inches of the short length will extend beyond the knot, as seen in Fig. 1. Hold the ring between the forefinger and the thumb of the left hand with the loop and the short end of string back in the hand. With the long end cover the ring closely with buttonhole or loop stitches, as in Fig. 3. Finish by tying the end to the short one which was left at starting; or, thread the ends of the string into a long-eyed needle and sew back into the ring like Fig. 4. The working stitch is made by passing the long end of the string



CURTAIN PULL

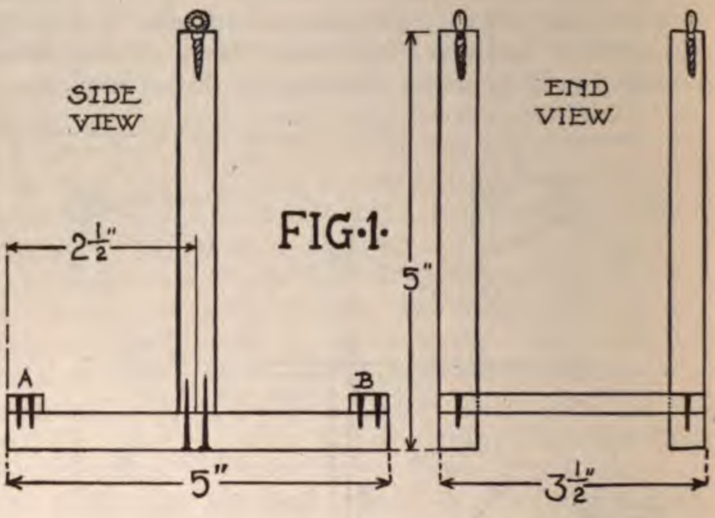
through the ring from front to back, down over the ring, and back to the front, passing through the loop of cord, then pulling the stitch up closely on the ring. (See Fig. 2.) The ring may be made more fancy by using a longer thread and sewing a second row of loops, one in each stitch of the first row. Fig. 5 shows the finished curtain pull.

22. Kite. This diagram illustrates the making of a real cloth kite that will fly and fly well. In beginning this work secure four yards of cloth, thirty-six inches wide. Percaline is the best material but cambric is cheaper and will serve the purpose. Cut the cloth in two parts and sew the pieces together in order to make a square. Next, draw the outline of the kite on the cloth. The drawing describes the shape, etc. When you cut the cloth, leave about an inch extra all around to turn in for a hem. Into the hem, thread a piece of picture wire. When threading, put a little brass ring into each corner of the cover. These rings will hold the cover to the sticks. Make a buttonhole fifteen inches from the upper corner, and the cover is finished. To make the sticks use any strong straight grained wood that is not too brittle. Make a *spine* and a *bow*, each one inch larger than the distance between the outside edges of two opposite rings, having them about three-eighths of an inch thick and five-eighths of an inch wide. Make a good strong joint at the point where the sticks cross. If it is made like the joint in the drawing the kite may be taken apart and rolled up for carrying at any time. Glue all the little blocks in position and bind them tightly with soft string. The joint must come at exactly the same place where you have made the buttonhole. When binding the little blocks which have been glued to the spine, bind on also a piece of strong wire bent crooked, as shown in the illustration. This goes through the buttonhole to be tied later to the harness and it keeps the spine from turning. On each end of the spine there should be a small hook to hold the rings at the top and bottom of the cover. On each end of the bow there should be a double hook; one side for holding the cover and the other side for holding one end of the bow string which is a strong piece of wire, with a ring attached to it and is a little shorter than the bow. When the string is in its proper position, the distance between it and the bow should be about eight inches. If the wind blows hard the kite should be bent a little.

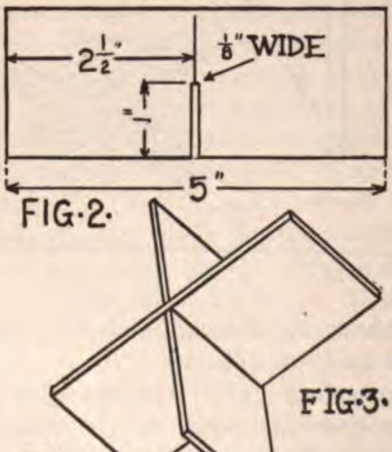


KITE

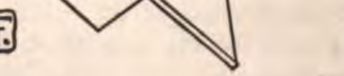
Next the harness is attached. This is made of two strong pieces of string, one three feet long and the other a little longer than one of the short edges of the kite, that is to say, about five feet and nine inches. The short one is hooked to the loop of the wire that comes through the buttonhole, and the long one is tied to a ring which is slipped on to the hook at the lower end of the spine after



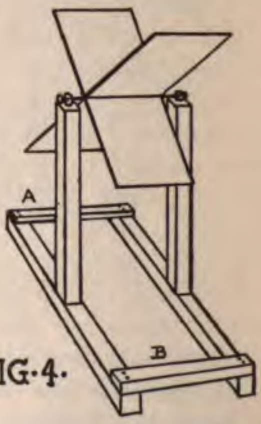
FIG·1·



FIG·2·



FIG·3·



FIG·4·

COMPLETED WATER ◆ MOTOR·

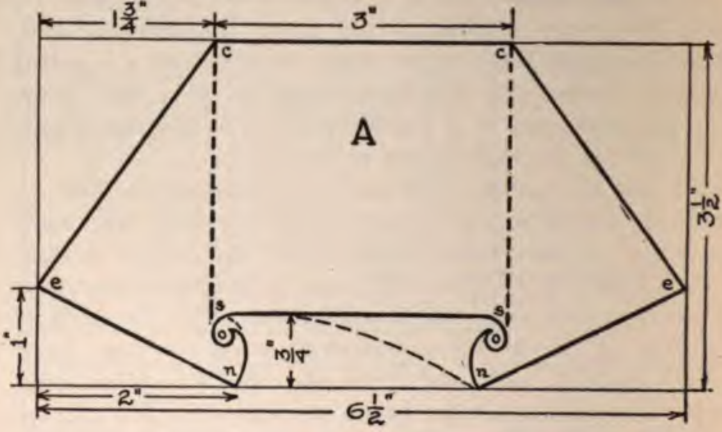
the cover ring is in place. The other ends and the end of the string from the reel are tied together. This kite when completed according to direction should fly in any kind of a breeze.

23. Water Motor. Here is a water wheel which may be driven by water power derived from the kitchen sink. When the water flows under water wheels they are called *undershot* wheels. In this case the water is to flow down upon the wheel and it is therefore called an *overshot* wheel. The directions for making are as follows:

Cut out of one-half inch stock, four pieces one-half an inch wide and five inches long. With one-inch wire nails fasten two of these pieces to the other two, so as to form two T's upside down. Be sure to drive the nails down into the wood so that their heads will be even with the surface. (See Fig. 1.) From one-quarter-inch wood cut two pieces one-half an inch wide and three and one-half inches long. Stand the two T's on the bench, so that they are exactly opposite and nail these pieces to them with brads. (See *A* and *B*.) Put a small brass screw-eye into the top of each of the upright sticks. (See Fig. 1.)

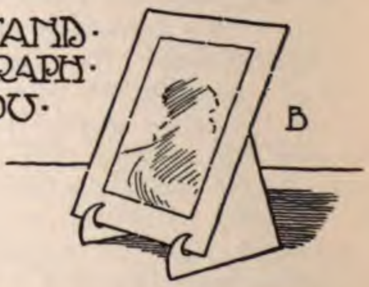
Out of one-eighth-inch wood cut two pieces, two inches wide and five inches long. With a saw and a jackknife make two cuts in these pieces. (See Fig. 2.) Fit them together as you would the cardboard partitions of an egg box. (See Fig. 3.) Mount the paddle wheel thus formed on the stand, using the screw-eyes for bearings, and wire nails, driven into each side of the paddle wheel, for an axle. Be sure that the heads of the nails are close to the screw-eyes, that the wheel may be prevented from slipping on its axle. (See Fig. 4.) After the work has been completed, place the water motor in the sink, so that the tip of one of the paddles when level or horizontal is directly under the water faucet. Turn on the water slowly and the motor will begin to revolve.

24. A Photograph Easel. An easel to hold a photo may be made from brass, copper or tin by following the diagrams and directions given. If you can secure brass or copper, that is best for this problem. Take the sheet of metal *A*, three and one-half inches, measure from the corners to fix the points *c*, *c*, *e*, *e* and *n*, *n*, as shown in the drawing. Cut



A · PICTURE · STAND · FOR · THE · PHOTOGRAPH · OF · THE · ONE · YOU · LOVE · BEST ·

MAY BE MADE FROM ONE · PIECE OF TIN · BRASS · OR COPPER ·



on the heavy straight lines from point to point, using very old, well sharpened scissors. Next locate *o* and *o*, center for the little circles. These may be punched with a wire nail and then filed large and round with a rat-tail file. To cut out the lower part, begin at *n* and *n* and cut toward *s* as suggested by the dotted lines. Now cut in the opposite direction to take out the piece with its point at the other *s*. The little triangular piece left in the middle may now be cut out, and the corners at the circles filed out. When the whole is smoothed with a fine file or emery cloth, bend back the three-cornered pieces on the heavy dotted lines, to make the square corners with *A*. The easel should now stand and hold the photo as shown at *B*. The best way to bend the metal is to clamp a three-cornered end between two pieces of board in a vise, so that the edges of the board come just to the dotted line. Then with another piece of board and a hammer, the square piece *A* may be bent smoothly and quickly into place.

Work is one of our greatest blessings,
Everyone should have an honest occupation.

CHAPTER FIVE

SPECIAL DAY PROGRAMS

Agnes E. Howe, A.M.
Principal Training School, California State Normal School
San Jose, California

Florence Holbrook
Principal Forestville School, Chicago
Author Hiawatha Primer; Studies in Poetry

The highest type of American citizenship and American manhood is coming and has always come from our most remote rural sections. An Abraham Lincoln was never born or developed in a palatial home. It seems to take the knocks and the hardships of the remote rural life to bring out the best that is in us. In schools of our smaller towns and in the little rural schools back in the woods or out on broad stretches of prairie our future great national characters are developed. If in these schools the boys and girls, endowed by the Creator with a talent to lead, and surrounded with the environment that develops clean minds and bodies, are given the proper training they will assume leadership.

Oratory has long been recognized as one of the stepping stones toward success. The man who can stand cool and collected before a vast audience and who is capable of expressing his thoughts in a forceful manner can mold the destiny of our nation. The art of being able to deliver an address enables one to get before the people and is a most valuable asset to anyone in a business or a social way. Oratory is today recognized as a most important phase of our school work. The teacher who is capable of teaching oratory, debating and dramatic art is a teacher who is in demand.

Special programs in which all of the pupils take part should be given at least once a month. Special exercises should be given on all special days. In some neighborhoods, where the patrons have not been educated to this phase of school work, the tactful teacher will explain to them the inspirational and educational value of such programs, laying special emphasis on the training such work gives to the memory. There is no parent who does not have ambitions to see his children assume places of leadership, and when he is made to realize that these programs will develop the oratorical powers of his children, he will be most heartily in favor of this feature of the school work.

Many of the parents as a rule are too busy to visit the school when there is nothing of special importance to attract them. However, they are usually happy to accept invitations to attend special programs. This enables the teacher to get better acquainted with the parents, and such occasions offer her a splendid opportunity to put on display the work being done by her pupils. The parents will have a keener appreciation of the teacher's efforts if they have an opportunity to see the results of her work.

The school should be made the social center of the neighborhood and the teacher should be the social leader. If a Mothers' Club has been organized in the district, the teacher should co-operate with this club in arranging all the programs. These programs also furnish excellent opportunity for raising funds for the school library or for playground equipment.

Material given under one program is often just as fitting for another program. In the program for Memorial Day is material which can be used on Lincoln's, Washington's or Lee's birthday. The teacher should familiarize herself thoroughly with all of this material.

It will be understood that the program for those Special Days which may occur on Saturday or Sunday will be given on the Friday preceding, and that any day occurring after the close of the school will be celebrated at such time before the end of the term as the teacher may deem expedient.

In these programs the selection of many of the songs is left to the teacher because the pupils will prefer to sing the songs they have learned. Every school should own a copy of the following books:

Songs of the Child World, No. 1. Riley & Gaynor.
Home Songs. The Oliver Ditson Company, Boston.
Patriotic Songs of the United States. Lyon & Healy, Chicago.

These programs are designed for the intermediate and grammar grades. Programs for the primary grades will be found in Vol. III, Chapter XIV.

Included are many helpful suggestions for decorating the room and conducting the exercises. The teacher should consult these suggestions in planning for the entertainment at which the program is to be rendered. There are also many poems and stories in other chapters which make excellent program material. Consult the INDEX for titles, *Poems*, *Stories*.

Xpo FERENS COLOMBO

COLUMBUS DAY

OCT. 12

AMERICA

Immortal morn, all hail,
That saw Columbus sail
By faith alone.
The skies before him bowed,
Back rolled the ocean proud,
And every lifting cloud
With glory shone.

Fair Science then was born
On that celestial morn,
Faith dared the sea;
Triumphant o'er her foes,
Then Truth immortal rose,
New heavens to disclose
And earth to free.

Strong Freedom then came forth
To liberate the earth
And crown the right:
So walked the pilot bold
Upon the sea of gold,
And darkness backward rolled
And there was light.

Sweep, sweep across the seas,
Ye rolling jubilees,
Grand chorals raise;
The world adoring stands,
And with uplifted hands
Offers from all the lands,
To God its praise.

Ye hosts of Faith, sing on;
The victories ye have won
Shall time increase,
And, like the choral strain
That fell on Bethlehem's plain,
Inspire the perfect reign
Of Love and Peace.
— Hezekiah Butterworth.

Opening Song . . . . . . *O Columbia, My Land*
(Tune, *O Worship the King*)

Exercise . . *The Origin and Meaning of Columbus Day*
(To be given by three pupils.)

First pupil — On the twelfth of October, in the year 1492, three small ships flying the Spanish flag sighted a small island in the group we call the West Indies. The brave commander of the tiny fleet, Christopher Columbus, whose achievement we are celebrating today, did not know that he had discovered an outlying island of a new continent, or that his discovery was one of the most important events in all history. A New World discovered; the beginning of new nations; an epoch in the march of the ages — that was the meaning of the voyage across unknown seas. On this twelfth of October it is fitting that we recall with reverence the heroism and vision of the discoverer of our beloved land of America.

Second pupil — Columbus Day was first observed as a special school festival four hundred years after the discovery of America. On June 29, 1892, the Congress of the United States passed a resolution authorizing the President to issue a proclamation recommending the observance of the day

(October 12) throughout the country. In his proclamation President Harrison said:

"On that day let the people, so far as possible, cease from toil and devote themselves to such exercises as may best express honor to the discoverer and their appreciation of the great achievements of the four completed centuries of American life.

"Columbus stood in his age as the pioneer of progress and achievement. The system of universal education is in our age the most prominent and salutary feature of the spirit of enlightenment, and it is peculiarly appropriate that the schools be made by the people the center of the day's demonstration. Let the national flag float over every schoolhouse in the country, and the exercises be such as shall impress upon the youth the patriotic duties of American citizenship."

Third pupil — "All hail Columbus, discoverer, dreamer, hero and apostle: We here, of every race and country, recognize the horizon which bounded his vision and the infinite scope of his genius. The voice of gratitude and praise for all the blessings which have been showered upon mankind by his adventure is limited to no language, but is uttered in every tongue. Neither marble nor brass can fitly form his statue. Continents are his monument, and unnumbered millions present and to come, who enjoy in their liberties and their happiness the fruits of his faith, will reverently guard and preserve, from century to century, his name and fame." — Chauncey M. Depew.

(As the third pupil finishes, the entire school should rise and sing the song which follows):

Song . . . . . . *Our Country for the World*
(Tune, *Battle Hymn of the Republic*)

Our Country for the World! we sing,
But in no worldly way:
Our Country to the Lord we bring
And fervent for her pray:
God make her true; God make her pure;
God make her wise and good;
Our Country for the World!

Chorus — Glory, glory hallelujah, glory, glory hallelujah,
Glory, glory hallelujah, Our Country for the World!

O, broader than her wide domains
Be her designs divine;
And richer than her golden veins
Her charities divine;
More firm than stalwart mountain-tower
Her fixèd faith in Thee,
Our Country for the World!

Great God, our Country for the world,
And all the world for Thee!
Christ's banners o'er all lands unfurled
In high exultancy!
O Day of God, speed on, speed on!
Speed truth and peace and love!
Our Country for the World!

Exercise . . . . . . *The Story of Columbus*

This exercise should be given by three pupils, in narrative form. The material will be found in the Type Study *Columbus*, page 196. The first speaker will tell of the boyhood of Columbus, and the theories then believed as to the shape of the earth. The second speaker will relate the efforts of Columbus to interest European monarchs in an expedition across the sea, his disappointments and his final victory at the court of Ferdinand and Isabella. The third will tell of his voyages and what came of them, and of his death and burial. These talks should be short and interesting, and be given with animation. They call for special preparation and careful drilling.

Talk by the Teacher . . *How America Received Its Name*

Recitation . . . . *Columbus*

Behind him lay the gray Azores,
Behind the gates of Hercules;
Before him not the ghost of shores,
Before him only shoreless seas.

The good mate said: "Now must we pray,
For lo! the very stars are gone.
Brave Adm'r'l, speak; what shall I say?"
"Why, say: 'Sail on, sail on! and on!' "

"My men grow mutinous day by day;
My men grow ghastly wan and weak."
The stout mate thought of home; a spray
Of salt wave washed his swarthy cheek.
"What shall I say, brave Adm'r'l, say,
If we sight naught but seas at dawn?"
"Why, you shall say, at break of day:
'Sail on! sail on! sail on! and on!' "

They sailed and sailed as winds might blow,
Until at last the blanched mate said:
"Why, now not even God would know
Should I and all my men fall dead.
These very winds forget the way,
For God from these dread seas is gone.
Now speak, brave Adm'r'l, speak and say —"
He said: "Sail on! sail on! and on!"

They sailed. They sailed. Then spake the mate:
"This mad sea shows his teeth to-night;
He curls his lip, he lies in wait,
With lifted teeth, as if to bite:
Brave Adm'r'l, say but one good word;
What shall we do when hope is gone?"
The words leapt as a leaping sword:
"Sail on! sail on! sail on! and on!"

Then, pale and worn, he kept his deck
And peered through darkness. Ah, that night
Of all dark nights! And then a speck —
A light! a light! a light! a light!
It grew, a starlit flag unfurled!
It grew to be Time's burst of dawn.
He gained a world; he gave that world
Its greatest lesson: "On! sail on!"

— Joaquin Miller.

ong . . . . *Hail Columbia*

Recitation . . . . *The American Eagle*

Bird of Columbia, well art thou
An emblem of our native land;
With unblanched front and noble brow,
Among the nations doomed to stand;
Proud like her mighty mountain woods;
Like her own rivers wandering free;
And sending forth from hills and floods
The joyous shout of liberty.
Like thee, majestic bird, like thee,
She stands in unbought majesty,
With spreading wing, untired and strong
That dares a soaring far and long,
That mounts aloft, nor looks below,
And will not quail tho tempests blow.

The admiration of the earth,
In grand simplicity she stands;
Like thee, the storms beheld her birth,
And she was nursed by rugged hands;
But, past the fierce and furious war,
Her rising fame new glory brings,
For kings and nobles come from far
To seek the shelter of her wings.
And like thee, rider of the cloud,
She mounts the heavens, serene and proud,
Great in a pure and noble fame,
Great in her spotless champion's name,
And destined in her day to be
Mighty as Rome,— more nobly free.

My native land, my native land,
To her my thoughts will fondly turn;
For her the warmest hopes expand,
For her the heart with fears will yearn.
Oh, may she keep her eye, like thee,
Proud eagle of the rocky wild,
Fixed on the sun of Liberty,
By rank, by faction, unbeguiled;
Remembering still the rugged road
Our venerable fathers trod,
When they through toil and danger pressed
To gain their glorious bequest,
And from each lip the caution fell
To those who followed, "Guard it well."

— Charles West Thomson.

DRAMATIZATION

The program may conclude with a dramatization of various scenes from the life of Columbus. The costumes and scenery need not be elaborate, but should be suggestive of what is represented. The following scenes could be effectively portrayed by the pupils under the direction of an ingenious teacher:

Columbus before King John of Portugal. The king should be seated on a throne, surrounded by his attendants. A messenger hands him a letter sent by Columbus, the contents of which he reads aloud to his courtiers. After making scornful remarks about the letter, he decides to send for the "crazy dreamer."

Columbus appears before the king and explains his plan. Though the monarch calls in his advisers and discusses the matter at some length, he does no more than send Columbus away with a promise that he will be helped in the future. Later the courageous navigator learns that the king does not intend to keep his promise.

Columbus at the Court of Spain. Ferdinand and Isabella are seated on their thrones. Again Columbus explains his hopes and plans, and again he is put off with fair promises that come to nothing. Later this scene may be repeated, but with the queen interested in his cause and announcing her determination to give him aid.

A Street Scene in Madrid. Columbus, wrapped in a cloak, is walking moodily up and down. Some children at play notice him, and recognizing him as the "fool who believes that people on the opposite side of the world walk with their heads down and their feet up," follow him and jeer at him as though he were insane.

The Landing on San Salvador. If possible have scenery suggesting an island with tropical vegetation. Native Indians are watching the white strangers land, with wonder and amazement. Columbus and his sailors bear a cross and the flag of Spain.

SUGGESTIONS

Flags, a picture of Columbus and pictures of the ships used in the first voyage make suitable decorations. Pictures representing various scenes in American history are also appropriate, and portraits of the presidents. The effort of the teacher should be directed toward making the program inspirational. It should give the pupils an ideal of their responsibilities as future American citizens.

HALLOWE'EN

OCT. 31

LITTLE ORPHANT ANNIE

Little Orphant Annie's come to our house to stay,
An' wash the cups an' saucers up, an' brush
the crumbs away,
An' shoo the chickens off the porch, an' dust the
hearth, an' sweep,
An' make the fire, an' bake the bread, an' earn her
board-an'-keep;
An' all us other children, when the supper things
is done,
We set around the kitchen fire an' has the mostest fun
A-list'nin' to the witch-tales 'at Annie tells about,
An' the Gobble-uns 'at gits you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

Onc't they was a little boy wouldn't say his prayers,—
hen he went to bed at night, away up stairs,
Mammy heerd him holler, an' his Daddy heerd
him bawl,
en they turn't the kivvers down, he wasn't
there at all!
eked him in the rafter-room, an' cubby-
hole, an' press,

An' seeked him up the chimbly-flue, an' ever'wheres, I guess;
But all they ever found was thist his pants an' rounda-bout: —
An' the Gobble-uns'll git you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

An' one time a little girl 'ud allus laugh an' grin,
An' make fun of ever'one, an' all her blood an' kin;
An' onc't, when they was "company," an' ole folks was there,
She mocked 'em an' shocked 'em, an' said she didn't care!
An' thist as she kicked her heels, an' turn't to run an' hide,
They was two great big Black Things a-standin' by her side,
An' they snatched her through the ceilin' 'fore she knowed what she's about!
An' the Gobble-uns'll git you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

An' little Orphant Annie says when the blaze is blue,
An' the lamp-wick sputters, an' the wind goes *woo-oo*!
An' you hear the crickets quit, an' the moon is gray,
An' the lightnin'-bugs in dew is all squenched away,—
You better mind yer parents, an' yer teachers fond an' dear,
An' churish them 'at loves you, an' dry the orphant's tear,
An' he'p the pore an' needy ones 'at clusters all about,
Er the Gobble-uns'll git you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

— James Whitcomb Riley.

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GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

Hallowe'en is an occasion for frolic and fun, and may be utilized by the teacher as a means of bringing the pupils and the people of the district together for an evening of fellowship. There may be a short literary program, but the greater part of the evening should be devoted to games and a social time. If desired, lunch boxes may be auctioned off; the funds raised could be devoted to the school library or be used for buying pictures. Have the room decorated with autumn leaves and Jack-o'-lanterns in which candles are burning. The blackboard may be decorated with pictures of goblins and such ornamental designs as please the fancy of the pupils.

We have provided a large number of appropriate games, and also a few recitations that could be used in a program. Old-fashioned songs should be sung, such as *Comin' through the Rye*, *Ben Bolt*, *Auld Lang Syne* and *Annie Laurie*. Gatherings of this nature help develop a spirit of fellowship that will continue throughout the year.

HALLOWE'EN GAMES

Bobbing for Apples. Bobbing for apples which are floating about in a tub of water creates much merriment. One must grasp the apple with his teeth without the assistance of his hands.

Apples may be suspended in a doorway or from a ceiling at such heights as will be convenient for most of the participants in the game. Beside each apple, on a string the same length as that on which the apple swings, tie a small bag partly filled with flour. Then set them all in motion. Let each person clasp his hands behind him and try to catch an apple with his teeth. One is very liable to be hit in the face by a bag of flour.

Blowing Out the Candle. Place a lighted candle on a table. Blindfold some one. Turn him around once or twice and tell him to blow out the candle.

Digging for Nuggets. If one can secure a tub of sand he may hide gold nuggets in it. He may wrap up as many pieces of candy as there are people to take part in the game, and with each piece he may wrap a fortune written on a slip of paper. Several little wooden paddles may be in readiness.

Each person may dig until he finds one "nugget." When each has one, the fortunes may be read.

Apple Seed Game. For older people the apple seed game is interesting. Apple seeds may be soaked in warm water until they are soft. After they are taken out of the water, some may have a small amount of ground cloves sprinkled over them, others a little red pepper, sugar, cinnamon, vinegar, lemon juice, molasses and something bitter. Let the seeds dry. Then wrap each in a bit of tissue paper. Place them all in a dish and mix up. Pass the dish and allow each person to take one. He must taste it and thus learn the character of the person he is to marry. Cloves indicate a mate who is never dull or uninteresting; pepper, one who has a quick temper; sugar, one who is kind and affectionate; cinnamon, one who is bright and lively; vinegar, a sour, cross, individual; molasses, a person who is loving but stupid; lemon juice, an interesting, refreshing person; something bitter, one who is morose.

If one chooses, the seeds may be passed again after the first fortunes have been learned. The second fortune may modify the first, thus; one who has a seed flavored with pepper, and one with sugar may know that the one he marries will be affectionate but quick tempered.

The Ring Cake. The ring cake is always much enjoyed. Any good-sized cake may be baked, and when ready for the oven a ring may be stirred into the dough. Sometimes a thimble is also stirred in. When the cake is cut, the one who finds the ring in his piece of cake will soon be married. The thimble indicates that the finder will always work for a living.

Roasting Nuts. A very old custom is that of roasting nuts in pairs and watching their behavior. If they stay close together until they burn up, it means that the person will marry the one in whom he is interested and that their lives will be congenial and happy. If the nuts fly apart, it signifies they will quarrel and separate.

Nut-Shell Boats. A similar test is that of the nut-shell boats. One prepares, beforehand, halves of English walnut shells. In each a short string is held while melted wax is turned around it. This makes little candles. Each guest may be given one candle. The shells may be set afloat in a pan of water and as some one gently stirs the water, each may watch to see how his boat acts. If the candle burns evenly and the boat sails smoothly, the course of true love will run smooth and there is much happiness in store for him. If the boats cross the paths of others, so will the owners' lives. More or less trouble is thus in store for them. If two boats keep close together for some time, the owners will always be close friends. If the boats collide there will be a break in the friendship of the owners. If the boats stay close to the edge of the tub, the owner will be a "stay-at-home" person.

Three Bowls. The test of the three bowls is quite a popular one. One bowl is empty, one contains clear water and one milky water. Girls are blindfolded one at a time and led to the table where the bowls are. The position of the bowls is changed before the girl reaches them. If she puts her hand into the empty bowl, she will be an old maid. If she touches the one containing clear water, she will marry a bachelor. If she touches the one with milky water she will marry a widower. These fortunes may be changed so as to apply to boys as well as girls, if the company is a mixed one.

Sometimes three saucers, one containing a little water, one a ring, and one some money are used instead of the bowls. The game is played the same as that of the bowls. The saucer containing the ring signifies an early marriage; that containing money indicates wealth; while that containing water indicates trouble (tears). One may try his luck several times if he likes. The positions of saucers should be changed each time after one is blindfolded.

Shadow Auction. If one wishes to make money out of an entertainment, a shadow auction will be profitable as well as amusing. The girls are asked to bring baskets containing supper for two, and to disguise themselves so that they will not be easily recognized. They should remain out of sight until the auction begins.

Across one end of the room a sheet should be stretched to serve as a screen. The auctioneer should be witty and one who can enter in the spirit of the occasion. One girl at a time should step in front of the light back of the screen. She is then on the "auction block" to be sold to the highest bidder. The boys try to recognize their particular friends and the sport begins. After the shadows have all been sold, the girls share their lunch with their purchasers. After refreshments, Hallowe'en games may be played.

Masquerade. If one can use a private house for a Hallowe'en entertainment, he may prepare invitations stating that the reports are this house is haunted. If the friends will gather at a convenient hour on Hallowe'en, the matter will be investigated. In order not to frighten away any spirits that may be lurking about, the guests may be asked to appear attired in sheets and pillow cases with white muslin masks. They may also be warned, if one wishes to make money out of the entertainment, that viands to tempt the spirits inhabiting any house will be offered at the close of the investigation for a reasonable sum. The use to which the funds thus secured are to be put should be known to the community.

The house should be dimly lighted. About time for the guests to arrive, some one should move about the front parts of the house with an electric flash light or any light that can be turned down quickly. The hostess should be clad in a sheet and pillow case drapery. She may lead the guests into a room nearly dark and seat them. The flash light, Jack-o'-lanterns, occasional ghosts moving about and low, weird music may serve to amuse the guests until all have arrived. Then they may be conducted all about the house. Where it is safe the lights may be out entirely, and every one made to grope his way along; in other places, dim lights serve as guides. In the attic may be a witch's cave and a witch to tell fortunes. In other rooms may be other ways of learning one's fate in Hallowe'en fashion. The hostess should lead the way from one room to another. If she chooses, the principal part of the fun may take place in the cellar. It could be lighted by candles set in vegetable holders. The large ends of carrots, beets or turnips may be cut off so as to form smooth bases and the small ends hollowed out to hold the candles. Jack-o'-lanterns should also be in evidence.

For a part of the entertainment, the guests may be seated in a circle, close together. Each takes what is given him by the hostess and passes it to his neighbor on the right. Ten or a dozen small articles, meant to make one shudder, should be passed. Among them may be a rubber glove stuffed with cold wet sand, a raw oyster, a small sponge dipped in cold water and well squeezed, a small tin toy which runs when wound up (wind it before passing it), a piece of modeling clay prepared for use and placed on ice until ready to pass. Many other harmless but clammy objects will suggest themselves to one as he works out his program.

Pulling Cabbages. Two guests at a time may be blindfolded and started down the garden path to pull "cabbages." They pull whatever they find first and bring it to the house. The character of the person one is to marry is determined by the plant he brings in. If it is crooked, the person will be dishonest; if it is straight, he will be honest and upright. His size is indicated also by that of the plant. If the plant is a weed, the person will be worthless. The quantity of dirt clinging to the roots indicates the amount of money one's life partner will possess.

Mystic Ball. At the close of the evening, each person may stand and allow the company to guess his name. Then he unmasks. When all are ready refreshments may be served, after which the "mystic ball" may be rolled across the table.

The ball consists of narrow strips of cloth sewed together and wound like a ball of carpet-rags. Through it are wound in many different objects, such as a thimble, buttons, pennies, or anything that suggests itself. The thimble would indicate that the finder would be thrifty, looking well to rips and tears. The kind of buttons found would indicate the finder's disposition; brass buttons would indicate vanity; pearl buttons, neatness; very plain, cheap buttons, an inclination to be economical. Pennies signify wealth. A folded paper boat might indicate that the possessor was to take a voyage, while a wee canoe might indicate the finder was always to paddle his own canoe.

The Disappointed Snowflakes

Four and twenty snowflakes,
    Came tumbling from the sky,
And said, "Let's make a snowdrift —
    We can if we but try."
So down they gently fluttered
    And lighted on the ground,
And when they were all seated
    They sadly looked around.

"We're very few indeed," sighed they,
    "And we sometimes made mistakes;
We cannot make a snowdrift
    With four and twenty flakes."
Just then the sun peeped round a cloud
    And smiled at the array,
And the disappointed snowflakes
    Melted quietly away.

Hallowe'en

Pixie, kobold, elf, and sprite,
All are on their rounds to-night;
In the wan moon's silver ray,
Thrives their helter-skelter play.

Fond of cellar, barn, or stack,
True unto the almanac,
They present to credulous eyes
Strange hobgoblin mysteries.

Cabbage stumps — straws wet with dew —
Apple-skins, and chestnuts too,
And a mirror for some lass
Show what wonders come to pass.

Doors they move, and gates they hide;
Mischiefs that on moonbeams ride
Are their deeds — and, by their spells,
Love records its oracles.

Don't we all, of long ago,
By the ruddy fireplace glow,
In the kitchen and the hall,
Those queer, cooflike pranks recall?

Eery shadows were they then —
But to-night they come again;
Were we once more but sixteen,
Precious would be Hallowe'en.

— Joel Benton.

All Hallow Eve

You wouldn't believe
On All Hallow Eve
What lots of fun we can make,
With apples to bob,
And nuts on the hob,
And a ring-and-thimble cake.

A paper boat
We will set afloat,
And on it write a name;
Then salt we'll burn,
And our fortunes learn
From a flickering candle flame.

Tom said, "When it's dark
We can strike a spark
From the fur of the big black cat."
But I said, "No!
'Twould tease kitty so —
And I love her too much for that."

— Carolyn Wells.

The Spell

At even o' Hallowmas no sleep I sought,
But to the field a bag of hempseed brought.
I scattered round the seed on every side,
And three times three in trembling accents cried:
"This hempseed with my virgin hand I sow;
Who shall my true love be, the crop shall mow."

I pared a pippin round and round again,
My shepherd's name to flourish in the plain;
I flung the unbroken paring o'er my head;
Upon the grass a perfect L was made.

Two hazelnuts I threw into the flame,
And to each nut I gave a sweetheart's name;
This with the loudest bounce me sore amazed,
That in a flame of brightest color blazed.
So may thy passion grow,
For 'twas thy nut that did so brightly glow.
— John Gay.

A Song of the Early Autumn

When late in summer the streams run yellow,
Burst the bridges and spread into bays;
When berries are black and peaches are mellow,
And hills are hidden by rainy haze;

When the golden rod is golden still,
But the heart of the sunflower is darker and sadder;
When the corn is in stacks on the slope of the hill,
And slides o'er the path the stripèd adder;

When butterflies flutter from clover to thicket,
Or wave their wings on the drooping leaf;
When the breeze comes shrill with the call of the cricket,
Grasshoppers' rasp, and rustle of sheaf;

When high in the field the fern-leaves wrinkle,
And brown is the grass where the mowers have mown;
When low in the meadow the cow-bells tinkle,
And small brooks crinkle o'er stock and stone;

When heavy and hollow the robin's whistle,
And shadows are deep in the heat of the noon;
When the air is white with the down o' the thistle,
And the sky is red with the harvest moon;

Oh, then be chary, young Robert and Mary,
No time let slip, not a moment wait!
If the fiddle would play it must stop its tuning,
And they who would wed must be done with their mooning;
Let the churn rattle, see well to the cattle,
And pile the wood by the barn-yard gate!
— Richard Watson Gilder.

Going A-Nutting

No clouds are in the morning sky,
The vapors hug the stream,—
Who says that life and love can die
In all this northern gleam?
At every turn the maples burn,
The quail is whistling free,
The partridge whirrs, and the frosted burs
Are dropping for you and me.
Ho! hilly ho! heigh O!
Hilly ho!
In the clear October morning.

Along our path the woods are bold,
And glow with ripe desire;
The yellow chestnut showers its gold,
The sumacs spread their fire;
The breezes feel as crisp as steel,
The buckwheat tops are red:
Then down the lane, love, scurry again,
And over the stubble tread!
Ho! hilly ho! heigh O!
Hilly ho!
In the clear October morning.
— Edmund Clarence Stedman.

All-cheering Plenty, with her flowing horn,
Led yellow Autumn, wreath'd with nodding corn.
— Burns.

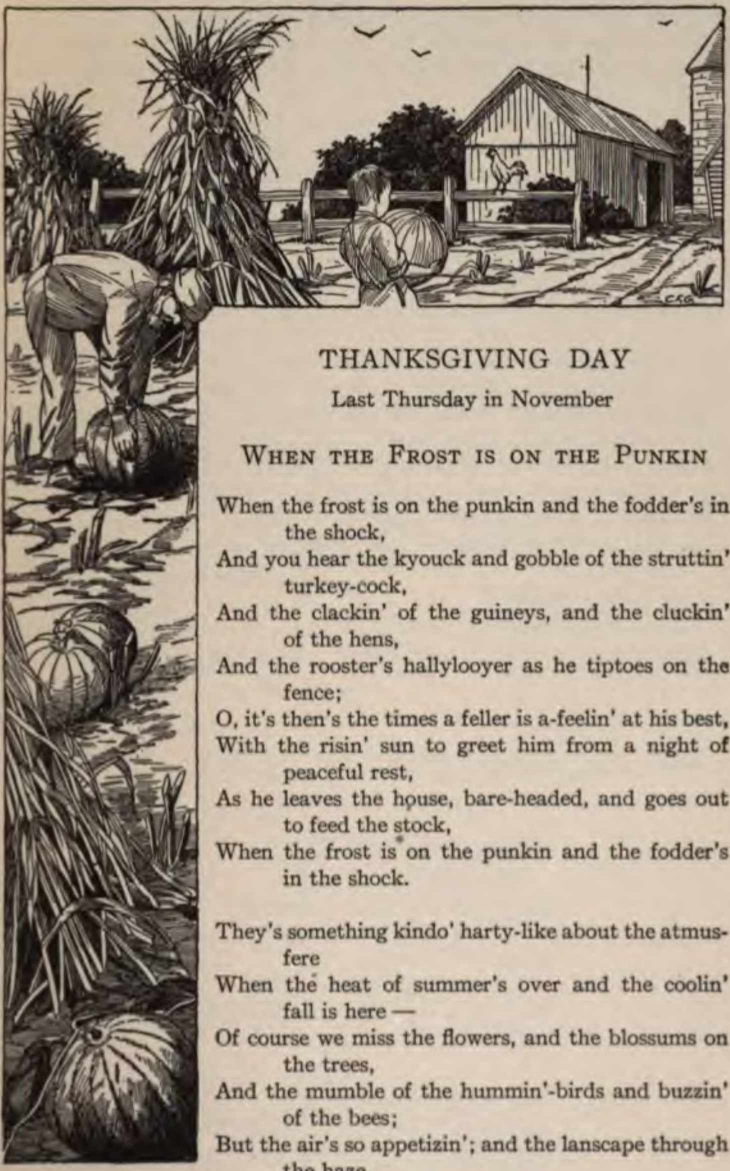
How Hallowe'en Came to Be

In the early days of England, the people held three great festivals during the year. The first occurred in May to celebrate the sowing of the seed. The second was held on June 21, when the grain began to ripen, and the last on the eve of Nov. 1, at the close of the harvest. At each festival fires were built on hill tops in honor of the sun, which the people worshipped.

When Christianity was introduced into England, the church did not forbid the celebration of these three festivals, but gave them new names. The harvest festival became known as All Hallow Eve, or the eve of All Saints' Day, which was Nov. 1.

The old customs were retained for some time, but new ones were gradually introduced. Wild, mysterious and superstitious rites were performed. Since fairies and ghosts were supposed to be abroad that night, it was thought the fairies would be good enough to aid mortals in learning what the future held in store for them.

As education spread, superstition disappeared until now the celebration of Hallowe'en is simply a frolic.



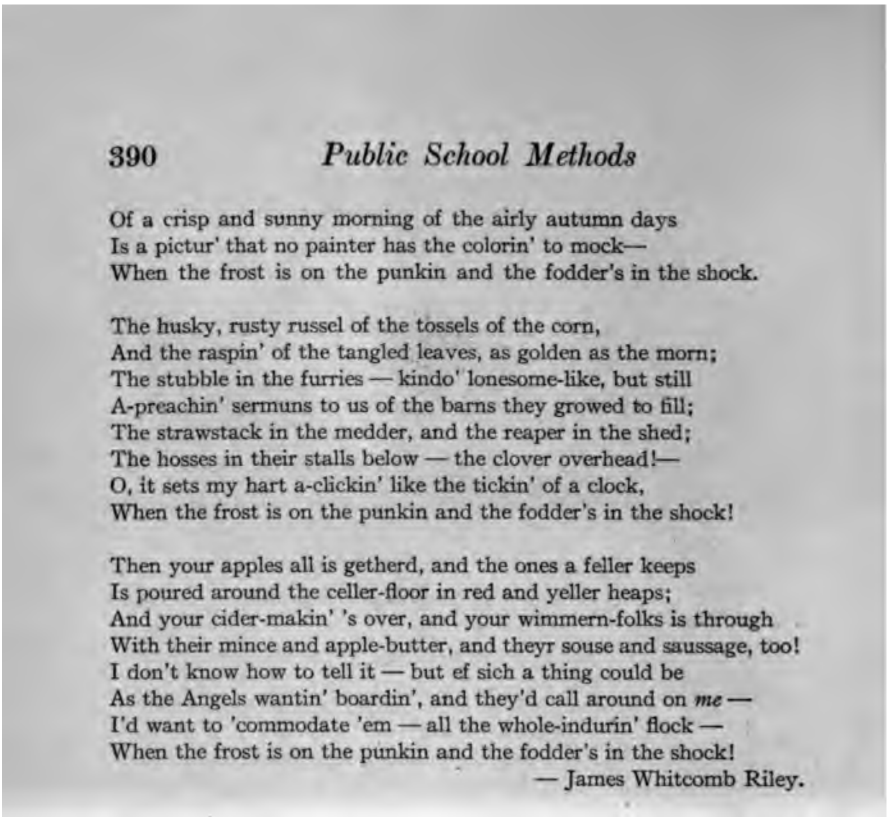
THANKSGIVING DAY

Last Thursday in November

When the Frost is on the Punkin

When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock,
And you hear the kyouck and gobble of the struttin' turkey-cock,
And the clackin' of the guineys, and the cluckin' of the hens,
And the rooster's hallylooyer as he tiptoes on the fence;
O, it's then's the times a feller is a-feelin' at his best,
With the risin' sun to greet him from a night of peaceful rest,
As he leaves the house, bare-headed, and goes out to feed the stock,
When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock.

They's something kindo' harty-like about the atmusfere
When the heat of summer's over and the coolin' fall is here —
Of course we miss the flowers, and the blossoms on the trees,
And the mumble of the hummin'-birds and buzzin' of the bees;
But the air's so appetizin'; and the lanscape through the haze



390 *Public School Methods*

Of a crisp and sunny morning of the airly autumn days
Is a pictur' that no painter has the colorin' to mock—
When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock.

The husky, rusty russel of the tossels of the corn,
And the raspin' of the tangled leaves, as golden as the morn;
The stubble in the furries — kindo' lonesome-like, but still
A-preachin' sermuns to us of the barns they growed to fill;
The strawstack in the medder, and the reaper in the shed;
The hosses in their stalls below — the clover overhead!—
O, it sets my hart a-clickin' like the tickin' of a clock,
When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock!

Then your apples all is getherd, and the ones a feller keeps
Is poured around the celler-floor in red and yeller heaps;
And your cider-makin' 's over, and your wimmern-folks is through
With their mince and apple-butter, and theyr souse and saussage, too!
I don't know how to tell it — but ef sich a thing could be
As the Angels wantin' boardin', and they'd call around on *me* —
I'd want to 'commodate 'em — all the whole-indurin' flock —
When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock!

— James Whitcomb Riley.

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Opening Song . . . . ***America***

(To be sung to the music of the *Crusader's Hymn: Oh! Mother, Dear Jerusalem.*)

O beautiful for spacious skies,
For amber waves of grain,
For purple mountain majesties
Above the fruited plain!
America! America!
God shed his grace on thee,
And crown thy good with brotherhood
From sea to shining sea!

O beautiful for pilgrim feet,
Whose stern impassioned stress
A thoroughfare for freedom beat
Across the wilderness!

America! America!
God mend thy every flaw,
Confirm thy soul in self-control,
Thy liberty in law!

O beautiful for heroes proved
In liberating strife,
Who more than self their country loved
And mercy more than life!
America! America!
May God thy gold refine,
Till all success be nobleness,
And every gain divine!

O beautiful for patriot dream
That sees beyond the years,
Thine alabaster cities gleam,
Undimmed by human tears!
America! America!
God shed his grace on thee,
And crown thy good with brotherhood
From sea to shining sea!

— Katherine Lee Bates.

Reading by Teacher . *The President's (or Governor's) Thanksgiving Proclamation*

Recitation . *Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England*

The breaking waves dash'd high
On a stern and rock-bound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches toss'd;

And the heavy night hung dark
The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moor'd their bark
On the wild New England shore.

Not as the conqueror comes,
They, the true-hearted came;
Not with the roll of the stirring drums,
And the trumpet that sings of fame;

Not as the flying come,
In silence and in fear:—
They shook the depths of the desert gloom
With their hymns of lofty cheer.

Amidst the storm they sang,
And the stars heard and the sea;
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
To the anthem of the free.

The ocean eagle soar'd
From his nest by the white wave's foam;
And the rocking pines of the forest roar'd —
This was their welcome home!

There were men with hoary hair
Amidst that pilgrim band;—
Why had they come to wither there,
Away from their childhood's land?

There was a woman's fearless eye,
Lit by her deep love's truth;
There was manhood's brow serenely high,
And the fiery heart of youth.

What sought they thus afar?—
Bright jewels of the mine?
The wealth of seas, the spoils of war?—
They sought a faith's pure shrine!

Ay, call it holy ground,
The soil where first they trod.
They have left unstain'd what there they found —
Freedom to worship God.
— Felicia Browne Hemans.

Drama . . . . *The First Thanksgiving Dinner*

The story of the first Thanksgiving Day may be dramatized by having children dressed to represent the Pilgrims. The girls may wear plain dark dresses, white caps, kerchiefs and aprons. The boys may wear short trousers, circular capes broad-brimmed, high-pointed hats, white collars and cuffs. There should be one to represent Miles Standish and another, Governor Bradford. A few boys should be dressed in Indian suits with their faces painted in different colors. (For good stories of this first feast, see *The First Thanksgiving Day* by Kate Douglas Wiggin Riggs and Nora A. Smith; also *The First Thanksgiving Day* by Jane G. Austin, both of which are found in *Thanksgiving*, by Schauffler.)

. . . . .

The first part of this play may represent a meeting of the Pilgrim housewives to discuss the Thanksgiving feast soon to be given. If a spinning wheel, some high-backed chairs and a grandfather's clock can be obtained, they will give the room a colonial appearance.

The housewives may discuss what they shall have to eat, how the meat can be obtained, how prepared, etc. Each may offer to provide some special thing.

They may suggest asking the Indians to share the feast and appoint one of their number to consult Miles Standish about the matter.

. . . . .

The next part may be the interview with the Captain in regard to asking the Indians to the feast. The Captain will approve and will suggest that Squanto be asked to carry the message.

. . . . .

The interview with Squanto should follow. A Pilgrim housewife tells him the plan and he consents to carry the invitation to Massasoit.

. . . . .

The next act may be supposed to occur on Thanksgiving morning. While a housewife is at work about her house, a child may enter saying that the Indians are coming. The mother, greatly excited, tells the child to find the Captain that he may meet the Indians. Another child may be sent to tell the neighbors and to ask them to assist in providing breakfast for the guests.

The housewives, bearing baskets on their arms, enter one at a time. By another door, Miles Standish presently enters, followed by the Indians. The women greet the guests, seat them and then serve bowls of soup. After eating, the Indians file slowly out.

. . . . . .

A tableau — the Puritans going to church — may follow. The picture of this scene may be used as a guide.

Later the girls may be arranged on one side of the platform and the boys on the other in imitation of a colonial church. They may sing, *Father We Thank Thee.*

. . . . . .

Then comes the dinner party.— A long table on which the feast is spread should occupy the middle of the platform. The men and Indians should be seated on chairs around the table and on the floor. The housewives should serve them, asking now and then if any one will have more turkey, goose, duck, venison, turnips, pie, etc.

At the close of the dinner, Massasoit says:

"Ugh! The Great Spirit loves his white children best."

Another Indian rises, leaves the room and returns with a sack of pop-corn which he turns on the table. This is something new to the Pilgrims, hence they should show great curiosity regarding it. They should ask many questions about it, which the Indians should answer in short sentences.

Song . . . . *Over the River and Through the Wood*

Recitation . . . *The Twenty-Second of December*

Wild was the day; the wintry sea
    Moaned sadly on New England's strand,
When first the thoughtful and the free,
    Our fathers, trod the desert land.

They little thought how pure a light,
    With years, should gather round that day;
How love should keep their memories bright,
    How wide a realm their sons should sway.

Green are their bays; but greener still
    Shall round their spreading fame be wreathed,
And regions, now untrod, shall thrill
    With reverence, when their names are breathed.

Till where the sun, with softer fires,
    Looks on the vast Pacific's sleep,
The children of the pilgrim sires
    This hallowed day like us shall keep.
        — Bryant.

Recitation . . . . . . *Father, We Thank Thee*

For flowers that bloom about our feet,
For tender grass so fresh, so sweet,
For song of bird and hum of bee,
For all things fair we hear or see,
For blue of stream and blue of sky,
For pleasant shade of branches high,
For fragrant air and cooling breeze,
For beauty of the blooming trees.

For mother-love and father-care,
For brothers strong and sisters fair,
For love at home and here each day,
For guidance lest we get astray,
For this new morning with its light,
For rest and shelter of the night,
For health and food, for love and friends,
For ev'rything Thy goodness sends,
Father in heaven, we thank Thee.
        — Ralph Waldo Emerson.

Reading . . . . *Thanksgiving Memories*

Thanksgiving! What a world of pleasant memories the word recalls; memories obscured and softened not by the mists of time but by the odorous steam rising slowly from innumerable savory dishes! Oh, the Thanksgiving dinners we have eaten; the Thanksgiving cheer of which we have partaken! We smile when we think of them, and our eyes grow misty and our hearts tender; for, alas, many who in days that are gone sat down with us at table will do so never again, and many a hand that was outstretched to us in greeting is stilled forever.

But this tinge of sorrow serves only to make our memories of those days more sweet and tender. November has come. There is a chill in the air, and in the early morning the meadows are white with frost. Then, one afternoon, a bank of dark gray clouds appears in the north, and rolls down across the sky, and presently the white flakes are falling fast. By evening, the old, brown, toil-scarred earth has been clothed in a mantle of spotless white; and when morning dawns, the snow is heaped high over hill and dale. The world is ready for Thanksgiving.

And we are ready, too. For days and days, preparations have been afoot indoors. The house has been pervaded with sweet and tantalizing odors; and when, at last, the evening before the great day, we steal to the cupboard doors and slyly peep within, what a sight greets the enchanted eye! There, on the topmost shelf, are the pumpkin pies, six of them, fat and juicy, odorous with their spicy contents, baked to a turn. Then there are the preserves and jellies set out ready for the feast — in especial, a certain marmalade, made of currants and red raspberries and I know not what besides, a flavor to ravish and delight the most indifferent palate.

And there, on the lower shelf, is the turkey,— a few short hours before the ruffled and vainglorious King of the Barnyard, with no slightest suspicion of the fate in store for him; now plucked clean, and stuffed with spiced bread and oysters, his wings turned in and his legs trussed together, waiting to occupy the place of honor at the morrow's banquet.

The great day dawns clear and fair and pleasantly cold. Long before sunrise the house has been astir, for the preparation of the feast is no light affair, to be accomplished in a few hours. The kitchen range is aglow, and into the capacious oven goes the great turkey. To one of the girls is assigned the task of "basting" him — of opening the oven door, from time to time, and dipping over his browning bosom some gravy from the pan in which he rests — and every time the oven door is opened the others in the kitchen must cluster around to get a glimpse of him and to sniff the ravishing aroma.

Meanwhile the guests have been arriving — cousins, uncles, aunts, nephews, nieces,— and such a bevy of bright-eyed, red-cheeked children as makes the old house ring from end to end. A sentry has to be stationed at the kitchen door to keep them out. The women take off their wraps and hasten to the kitchen to offer assistance; the men sit around the fire in the parlor and discuss the season, the crops, and the news of the neighborhood. The clock on the mantle ticks noisily on, and just as its hands come together at the stroke of twelve, the door into the dining-room is thrown open, and the women smilingly announce that dinner is ready.

Oh, what a spectacle that board affords, with its snowy cloth, its shining porcelain, its gleaming silver! And oh, what delights await the palate! "Now may digestion wait on appetite and health on both!" But grandfather, who has taken his accustomed place at the table-head, pauses a moment and glances around with tender eyes at the happy faces before him. A silence falls, and heads are bent as, in a low and reverent voice, he says, "Let us pray."

— John Tremaine.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Essay . . . . *The Origin of Thanksgiving*
(By an older pupil.)

Reading . . . . *Our First Thanksgiving Day*

Children do you know the story
Of the first Thanksgiving Day,
Founded by our Pilgrim fathers
In that time so far away?

They had given, for religion,
Wealth and comfort, yes, and more,
Left their homes, and friends, and kindred
For a bleak and barren shore.

On New England's rugged headlands,
Now where peaceful Plymouth lies,
There they built their rough log cabins,
'Neath the cold, forbidding skies.

And too often e'en the bravest
Felt his blood run cold with dread,
Lest the wild and savage red-man
Burn the roof above his head.

Want and sickness, death and sorrow,
Met their eyes on every hand,
And before the springtime reached them,
They had buried half their band.

But their noble, brave endurance
Was not exercised in vain;
Summer brought them brighter prospects,
Ripening seed and waving grain.

So the Governor, William Bradford,
In the gladness of his heart,
To praise God for all His mercies,
Set a special day apart.

That was in the Autumn, children,
Sixteen hundred and twenty-one;
Scarce a year from when they landed,
And the colony begun.

And now when in late November,
Our Thanksgiving feast is spread,
'Tis the same time-honored custom
Of those Pilgrims, long since dead.

We shall never know the terrors
That they braved, years, years ago,
But for all their struggles gave us,
We our gratitude can show.

And the children of this country,
If they feast, or praise, or pray,
Should bless God for those brave Pilgrims,
And their first Thanksgiving Day.
— *Youth's Companion.*

ise . . . . *A Thanksgiving*

(By four pupils.)

upil — For the wealth of pathless forests,
Whereon no axe may fall;
For the winds that haunt the branches;
The young birds' timid call;
For the red leaves dropped like rubies
Upon the dark green sod;
For the waving of the forests,
I thank Thee, O my God!

. . . . .

l pupil — For the rosebud's break of beauty
Along the toiler's way;
For the violet's eye that opens
To bless the new-born day;
For the bare twigs that in summer
Bloom like the prophet's rod;
For the blossoming of flowers,
I thank Thee, O my God!

. . . . .

pupil — For the splendor of the sunsets,
Vast mirrored on the sea;
For the gold-fringed clouds that curtain
Heaven's inner mystery;
For the molten bars of twilight,
Where thought leans, glad, yet awed;
For the glory of the sunsets,
I thank Thee, O my God!

ı pupil — For the earth, and all its beauty;
The sky, and all its light!
For the dim and soothing shadows
That rest the dazzled sight;
For unfading fields and prairies,
Where sense in vain has trod;
For the world's exhaustless beauty,
I thank Thee, O my God!

ether — For an eye of inward seeing;
A soul to know and love;
For these common aspirations,
That our high heirship prove;

For the hearts that bless each other
Beneath Thy smile, Thy rod;
For the amaranth saved from Eden,
We thank Thee, O our God!
— Lucy Larcom.

Song . . . . *The Corn Song*

(Tune, *Auld Lang Syne*)

Heap high the farmer's wintry hoard!
Heap high the golden corn!
No richer gifts has Autumn poured
From out her lavish horn!

Let other lands, exulting, glean
The apple from the pine,
The orange from its glossy green,
The cluster from the vine;

We better love the hardy gift
Our rugged vales bestow,
To cheer us when the storm shall drift
Our harvest-fields with snow.

Through vales of grass and meads of flowers,
Our ploughs their furrows made,
While on the hills the sun and showers
Of changeful April played.

We dropped the seed o'er hill and plain,
Beneath the sun of May,
And frightened from our sprouting grain
The robber crows away.

And through the long, bright days of June
Its leaves grew green and fair,
And waved in hot midsummer's noon
Its soft and yellow hair.

And now, with autumn's moonlit eves,
Its harvest-time has come,
We pluck away the frosted leaves,
And bear the treasure home.
— John Greenleaf Whittier.

Reading . . . . . *The Day of Thanksgiving*

Thanksgiving Day is the one national festival which turns on home life. It is not a day of ecclesiastical saints. It is not a national anniversary. It is not a day celebrating a religious event. It is a day of Nature. It is a day of thanksgiving for the year's history. And it must pivot on the household. A typical Thanksgiving dinner represents everything that has grown in all the summer, fit to make glad the heart of man. It is not a riotous feast. It is a table piled high, among the group of rollicking young and the sober joy of the old, with the treasures of the growing year, accepted with rejoicings and interchange of many festivities as a token of gratitude to Almighty God.

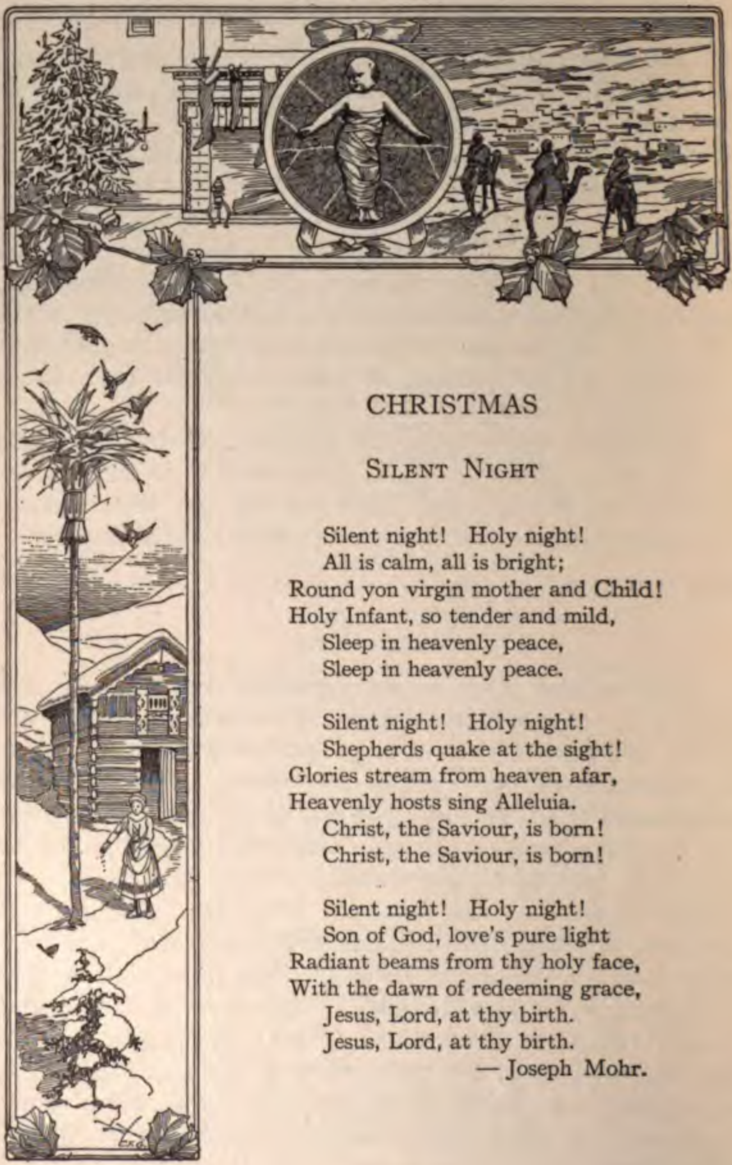
Remember God's bounty in the year. String the pearls of His favor. Hide the dark parts, except so far as they are breaking out in light! Give this one day to thanks, to joy, to gratitude! — Henry Ward Beecher.

Song . . . . *Selected*

SUGGESTIONS

Thanksgiving Day is an American holiday. By the celebration of it children learn why we observe it, and are deeply impressed by the courage, perseverance and strength of character of our Puritan forefathers. They begin to understand the principles upon which our government rests and to take pride in them. Each child should be led to be deeply grateful for the special privileges that are his.

The room may be decorated with flags, bunting, and festoons of leaves, nuts, grains and fruits, tied with red, white and blue ribbon or strips of tissue paper. A number of pumpkins are also desirable. Collections of Indian and colonial relics are also effective. There is hardly a community that cannot furnish a spinning-wheel or old-fashioned pieces of furniture, and Indian moccasins, arrow-heads, bows, snowshoes, etc. If these things cannot be found let the children make them, especially the Indian things.



CHRISTMAS

SILENT NIGHT

Silent night! Holy night!
All is calm, all is bright;
Round yon virgin mother and Child!
Holy Infant, so tender and mild,
Sleep in heavenly peace,
Sleep in heavenly peace.

Silent night! Holy night!
Shepherds quake at the sight!
Glories stream from heaven afar,
Heavenly hosts sing Alleluia.
Christ, the Saviour, is born!
Christ, the Saviour, is born!

Silent night! Holy night!
Son of God, love's pure light
Radiant beams from thy holy face,
With the dawn of redeeming grace,
Jesus, Lord, at thy birth.
Jesus, Lord, at thy birth.

— Joseph Mohr.

Opening Song . . . . *Shine Out, O Blessed Star*

Recitation . *While Shepherds Watched Their Flocks by Night*

Like small curled feathers, white and soft,
The little clouds went by,
Across the moon, and past the stars,
And down the western sky:
In upland pastures, where the grass
With frosted dew was white,
Like snowy clouds the young sheep lay,
That first, best Christmas night.

The shepherds slept; and, glimmering faint,
With twist of thin, blue smoke,
Only their fire's crackling flames
The tender silence broke —
Save when a young lamb raised his head,
Or, when the night wind blew,
A nesting bird would softly stir,
Where dusky olives grew —

With finger on her solemn lip,
Night hushed the shadowy earth,
And only stars and angels saw
The little Saviour's birth;
Then came such flash of silver light
Across the bending skies,
The wondering shepherds woke, and hid
Their frightened, dazzled eyes!

And all their gentle sleepy flock
Looked up, then slept again,
Nor knew the light that dimmed the stars
Brought endless Peace to men —
Nor even heard the gracious words
That down the ages ring —
"The Christ is born! The Lord has come,
Good-will on earth to bring!"

Then o'er the moonlit, misty fields,
Dumb with the world's great joy,
The shepherds sought the white-walled town,
Where lay the baby boy —
And oh, the gladness of the world,
The glory of the skies,
Because the longed-for Christ looked up
In Mary's happy eyes! — Margaret Deland

Dialogue . . . . *The Christmas Message*

First Pupil — We bear the Christmas message
Brought to us so long ago.
Why have the centuries kept it fresh?
Why do we prize it so?

Second Pupil — Because it is rich with the gold of love
That with bright, exhaustless flow,
From unfailing source in the Heart Divine,
Supplies our hearts below.

And it tells of the tender, human bond,
Since ever the world began,
For it teaches the Fatherhood of God,
The brotherhood of man.

First Pupil — But how can we carry the tidings,
Make each man as loving and true
To the poor, the oppressed and the lowly,
As they are to me and to you?

Second Pupil — Let them shine in thought and word and deed,
As we work out the heavenly plan,
And, blessed by the Fatherhood of God,
Prove the brotherhood of man.

— Jane Andrews.

Reading . . . . *The Little Match Girl* (Andersen)

(Vol. I, page 463)

This beautiful story should be told by a pupil who can give it simply, but with sympathetic interpretation.

Recitation . . . . *Jest 'fore Christmas*

Father calls me William, sister calls me Will,
Mother calls me Willie — but the fellers call me Bill!
Mighty glad I ain't a girl — ruther be a boy
Without them sashes, curls, an' things that's worn by Fauntleroy!
Love to chawnk green apples and go swimmin' in the lake —
Hate to take the castor-ile they give f'r belly-ache!
Most all the time, the whole year roun', there ain't no flies on me,
But jest 'fore Christmas I'm as good as I kin be!

Got a yeller dog named Sport — sick 'im on the cat;
First thing she knows she doesn't know where she is at!
Got a clipper-sled, an' when us kids goes out to slide
'Long comes the grocery cart, an' we all hook a ride!
But sometimes, when the grocery man is worrited an' cross,
He reaches at us with his whip an' larrups up his hoss;
An' then I laff an' holler: "Oh, you never teched *me!*"
But jest 'fore Christmas I'm as good as I kin be!

Gran'ma says she hopes that when I git to be a man
I'll be a missionarer like her oldest brother Dan
As wuz et up by the cannibuls that lives in Ceylon's isle!
Where ev'ry prospeck pleases an' only man is vile.
But gran'ma she has never been to see a Wild West show,
Nor read the life uv Daniel Boone, or else I guess she'd know
That Buff'lo Bill an' cowboys is good enough f'r me —
Excep't jest 'fore Christmas, when I'm good as I kin be!

Then old Sport, he hangs around, so sollum-like an' still —
His eyes they seem a-sayin': "What's the matter, little Bill?"
The old cat sneaks down off her perch, and wonders what's become
Of them two enemies of hern that uster make things hum!
But I am so perlite an' tend so earnestly to biz,
That mother says to father: "How improved our Willie is!"
But father, havin' been a boy hisself, suspicions me,
When jest 'fore Christmas, I'm as good as I kin be!

For Christmas, with its lots and lots of candies, cakes, an' toys,
Was made, they say, f'r proper kids, an' *not* f'r naughty boys!
So wash yer face, an' bresh yer hair, an' mind yer p's and q's,
An' don't bust out yer pantaloons, an' don't wear out yer shoes;
Say "yessum" to the ladies, an' "yessir" to the men,
An' when they's company don't pass yer plate f'r pie again;
But, thinkin' of the things yer'd like to see upon that tree,
Jest 'fore Christmas be as good as yer kin be!

— Eugene Field.

eading . . . . . *Sir Launfal and The Leper*

As Sir Launfal made morn through the darksome gate,
He was 'ware of a leper, crouched by the same,
Who begged with his hand and moaned as he sate;
And a loathing over Sir Launfal came;
The sunshine went out of his soul with a thrill,
The flesh 'neath his armor 'gan shrink and crawl,
And midway its leap his heart stood still
Like a frozen waterfall;

For this man, so foul and bent of stature,
Rasped harshly against his dainty nature,
And seemed the one blot on the summer morn,—
So he tossed him a piece of gold in scorn.

The leper raised not the gold from the dust:
"Better to me the poor man's crust,
Better the blessing of the poor,
Though I turn me empty from his door;
That is no true alms which the hand can hold;
He gives nothing but worthless gold
Who gives from a sense of duty;
But he who gives a slender mite,
And gives to that which is out of sight,
That thread of the all-sustaining Beauty
Which runs through all and doth all unite,—
The hand cannot clasp the whole of his alms,
The heart outstretches its eager palms,
For a god goes with it and makes it store
To the soul that was starving in darkness before."
— James Russell Lowell. From *The Vision of Sir Launfal.*

Song . . . . *Merry Christmas Bells*

Christmas in Other Lands

Note: This exercise can be made very interesting by having several pupils, each dressed in the costume of a special country, tell how Christmas is celebrated in the different countries. The stories can be given all at one time or they can be interspersed between other numbers of the program.

Christmas, which is so dear to childish hearts, is our oldest holiday. It is thought that a Pope in the second century established the custom of celebrating the birth of Christ. The custom grew until now it is observed in every Christian land. Each country has its own traditions concerning Christmas, and each celebrates the day in its own peculiar way.

In England the day used to be celebrated by great feasts. Owners of estates entertained in addition to their own families all the people living on their land. This meant that the cooks were busy for days preceding the holiday preparing cakes, puddings and other choice eatables. The pantries were filled with vegetables of all sorts and with huge roasts. This part of the English Christmas is not observed at the present time.

At midnight bells ring throughout the land to announce the arrival of Christmas. Very early in the morning children, many of whom are very poor, go about the streets singing Christmas carols. This is a beautiful way in which to welcome the dawn of Christmas day.

In the morning, children help to bring in the great Yule log. This is usually cut the year before so that it may be thoroughly dry before it is used. It is placed in the fire-place and lighted with a piece of the log burned the previous year, saved for this purpose. Children sing and dance as the log burns. The houses and churches are prettily decorated with holly and ivy. Most families have Christmas trees, which the children believe are gifts of St. Nicholas.

In Sweden, preparations for Christmas begin two or three weeks before Christmas. Houses are thoroughly cleaned, metal utensils are polished until everything seems spotless. New dresses and suits are made for the children. Then the cooking begins. All kinds of fancy cakes and cookies are made. The cookies are cut to represent different animals and are then frosted and covered with sugar sand. Biscuits are the favorite bread for this season, and piles of them and coffee cake are baked and put away for the holiday feast. A kind of fish, obtained from Norway, is always prepared for supper Christmas Eve. Housewives begin its preparation December 13, and the fish is not ready to eat until Christmas Eve. It is considered a rare treat.

The children who live in the country or in small villages go to the woods and select their own Christmas trees. If the brother is old enough to cut it, he does so. If not, the father cuts it. The children drag it home and trim it themselves. They have no Santa Claus, although occasionally, to amuse the younger ones, presents are thrown in at the windows and no one sees where they come from. Early Christmas morning lighted candles are put in the windows to light people on their way to church. The Christmas service begins at five o'clock and every one goes. The churches are lighted by rows of candles in the windows and throughout the church. After the service, families return to their homes to enjoy the day together. As a rule the children are kept at home all day. At noon, the principal part of the feast consists of a small roast pig. The day after Christmas is observed as a holiday also, and on that day children visit friends and family reunions are held.

In Norway, the preparations for the Christmas season are similar to those in Sweden. The children prepare their own Christmas trees, which are lighted at five o'clock Christmas Eve. Upon Christmas day all animals are given extra food. A sheaf of wheat, saved from the harvest, is fastened to a pole erected near the house for a feast for the birds.

In Germany, children have Christmas trees. The housewives prepare the Christmas cakes and cookies in the shape of animals and these are greatly enjoyed. Just before Christmas some one strangely attired calls at each house and inquires if the children have been good. He carries a large bag and a bunch of switches. If the children have been good, he opens the bag and throws nuts about. If a child has not been good, a switch is left to be used in punishing him. This is "Ruprecht." Many children think this is all he does and that the Christ Child himself brings their presents.

The little Dutch children think that St. Nicholas drives a white horse. So they clean their wooden shoes, fill them with oats and hay for the white horse, and in the morning awake to find their shoes filled with candy and toys. On Christmas day no work is done. Every one goes to church in the morning and the day is kept holy.

Christmas in Belgium is much like that in Holland except that the children put carrots in their shoes for the good Saint's horse. If the horse smells the carrots, it will enter the house, and St. Nicholas will remember all who are good to his horse.

In Denmark, the children believe that a good Brownie, Nisson, who looks like a little, old man with a long, gray beard and who lives underground, comes to bring them gifts. Christmas day is spent in family reunions. A feast is served at noon at which the most attractive dish is roast goose.

Christmas in Russia is spent in feasting. Houses and churches are beautifully decorated with greens, and most families have a Christmas tree. Christmas Eve the children sing and dance and have plays which they arrange themselves.

The French Santa Claus is called *Père Nöel*, which means Father Christmas. He visits each home and rewards good children. Ruprecht, who carries switches for bad children, comes with Nöel. Only the children receive presents. They place their shoes in one corner of the room, and in them Nöel leaves their gifts. In Paris an immense Christmas tree is erected for the benefit of the poor children. Every one goes to church on Christmas morning. Extra food is given to all animals, and grain is thrown to the birds.

The children's Christmas friend in Italy is what we know as Mother Goose. They call her *Befana* and watch for her appearance on the broomstick she rides. Italian people usually have fireplaces instead of stoves. They have a large log called the Christmas log, which they place on the fire Christmas Eve. The boys and girls recite poems and sing songs. Then they go into another room where a large urn or vase stands in the center of a table, filled with gifts. Each child reaches in and takes the first package he finds. If it has his name on it, he keeps it, but if not, he puts it back and tries again.

The Swiss children place one shoe outside the door for two Saturdays before Christmas. If they have been good they will find candy and nuts in their shoes. Christmas Eve they go to bed early and waken the next morning to find a loaded Christmas tree.

In Spain and Portugal Christmas is celebrated by family reunions and elaborate religious ceremonies. Three Kings (the three Wise Men) perform the duties of Santa Claus.

In Austria, lighted candles are placed in the windows Christmas Eve so that the Christ Child in passing will not stumble. Three special candles are made for the occasion and a Christmas log is cut for the fireplace. One of the special candles is lighted with a good deal of ceremony Christmas Eve. A second is lighted Christmas morning, while the third is kept for New Year's Day.

Song . . *Brightest and Best of the Sons of the Morning*

Recitation . . . . . . *Christmas Like It Used to Be*

Christmas like it used to be!
That's the thing would gladden me.
Kith and kin from far and near
Joining in the Christmas cheer.
Oh, the laughing girls and boys!
Oh, the feasting and the joys!
Wouldn't it be good to see
Christmas like it used to be?

Christmas like it used to be,—
Snow a-bending bush and tree,
Bells a-jingling down the lane;
Cousins John and Jim and Jane,
Sue and Kate and all the rest
Dressed-up in their Sunday best,
Coming to that world of glee,—
Christmas like it used to be.

Christmas like it used to be,—
Been a long, long time since we
Wished (when Santa Claus should come),
You a doll and I a drum,
You a book and I a sled
Strong and swift and painted red;
Oh, that day of jubilee!
Christmas like it used to be.

Christmas like it used to be.
It is still as glad and free,
And as fair and full of truth,
To the clearer eyes of youth.
Could we gladly glimpse it through
Eyes our children's children do
In their joy-time, we would see
Christmas like it used to be. — Nixon Waterman.

Song . . . . *Joy to the World*

NOTE: The poem *A Visit from Saint Nicholas* will be found in Volume I, page 234, and the story *To Light the Christ Child on His Way*, on page 466 of the same volume.

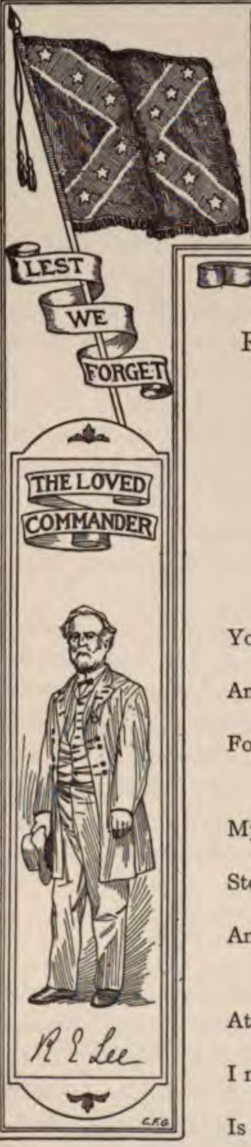
DRAMATIZATIONS

There are many scenes from stories for children that can be easily dramatized. The fifth and sixth chapters of *The Birds' Christmas Carol*, by Kate Douglas Wiggin Riggs, furnish especially good material — the story of the dinner party given on Christmas day by little Carol Bird for the nine Ruggles children. The preparations of Mother Ruggles and the directions given the children, together with the actions and speeches of the guests at the party, are very interesting and humorous, and the pupils will enjoy giving this bit of literature in dramatic form. (A dramatized version of the book may be obtained by applying to Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.)

The Christmas breakfast of the March girls, described in Louisa M. Alcott's *Little Women*, can also be used. In this scene the girls carry their breakfast to the poor Hummel children as a Christmas offering. There are also scenes from Dickens' *Christmas Carol*, such as the Christmas of Tiny Tim, that could be worked up by an ingenious teacher. None of these little plays would require elaborate costumes or scenery and all would be interesting and helpful to the pupils.

SUGGESTIONS

Everything connected with the program should harmonize with the spirit of Christmas. Decorate the room with festoons of evergreen and sprays of holly. Hofmann's *Head of Christ*, if a copy is available, adds much to the decorations. Bunting and flags are also appropriate, and a Christmas tree should occupy one corner of the room.



Stratford House. Gen. Lee's Birthplace

ROBERT E. LEE'S BIRTHDAY

JAN. 19

MRS. R. E. LITTLE
President
N. C. Division, U. D. C.

GETTYSBURG

You wore the blue and I the gray
On this historic field;
And all throughout the dreadful fray
We felt our muscles steeled
For deeds which men may never know,
Nor page of history ever show.

My father, sir, with soul to dare,
Throughout the day and night,
Stood on old Little Round Top there,
And watched the changeful fight,
And, with a hoarse, inspiring cry,
Held up the stars and bars on high.

At last the flag went down, and then —
Ah, you can guess the rest —
I never saw his face again.
My father's loyal breast
Is strewn with these sweet flowers, I wot,
That seem to love this sacred spot.

The smoke of battle's cleared away,
And all its hatreds, too;
And as I clasp your hand today,
O man who wore the blue,
On yonder hill I seem to see
My father smiling down on me.
— Eugene Field.

Opening Song . . . . . *How Firm a Foundation*

Reading . . . . . . *The Story of Lee's Boyhood*

Robert E. Lee's father, General Henry Lee, who was called Light Horse Harry, was a famous cavalry officer in the Revolutionary War. He was often sent out as a scout to learn of the enemies' plans. His troopers were called the eyes and ears of the army. His work was highly commended both by Congress and General Washington.

After the war he was governor of Virginia, and later became a member of Congress. It was while delivering Washington's funeral oration in Congress that he said, "Washington is first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Charles Richard Lee, the paternal great-great-grandfather of Robert, came from England to Virginia during the reign of Charles the First. He was a kindhearted man, of good stature and good sense, and in many ways was like his descendant who led the armies of the Confederacy.

Robert's mother was Anne Hill Carter, from one of Virginia's best families. Stratford House in which Robert was born is a fine old mansion, which stands not far from the banks of the Potomac River near the birthplace of Washington.

He had two brothers — Charles and Sidney — and two sisters — Anne and Mildred.

Robert was very fond of horses and dogs, and spent much of his time around the stables. He enjoyed out-of-door sports, especially hunting. In this way he developed that great strength which enabled him to endure the hardships of the campaigns.

As his father's health was failing, the family moved into the city of Alexandria when Robert was four years old. When he was at the age of eleven his father died. His mother was not strong and finally became an invalid, unable to get about at all alone. Her oldest son was at college, her second son, in the navy. The older daughter was very frail and the other too young to do much about the house. Hence to Robert fell most of the responsibility of overseeing the housework and caring for his mother. He was very strong for a boy of his years and could easily carry her about in his arms. Every pleasant afternoon he hurried home from school to take her for a ride. He carried her to the carriage, wrapped her up comfortably and did all he could to cheer her up while they rode.

Lee attended private schools until he was eighteen. He then entered West Point, for he had decided that he would be a soldier like his father. He had grown to be a handsome, well-developed young man, five feet eleven inches tall. He was scrupulously neat in his dress as well as in everything he did. He was very kind and courteous to all whom he met and became a great favorite both with his instructors and classmates. He was a devoted Christian and every one felt the influence of the strength and purity of his character. During the four years he was at West Point he never had a demerit mark. He graduated in 1829, standing second in a class of forty-six.

Not long after his graduation his mother became very ill. He sat at her bedside day and night, giving her food and medicine with his own hand, but care and love could not save her, and he was soon bereft of her to whom he said he owed everything.

They say that man is mighty;
  He governs land and sea.
He wields a mighty scepter
  O'er lesser powers that be.
But a mightier power and stronger
  Man from his throne has hurled,
For the hand that rocks the cradle
  Is the hand that rules the world.—**Wm. Ross Wallace.**

itation . . . . . *Battle Bunny — Malvern Hill*

(After the men were ordered to lie down, a white rabbit, which had hopping hither and thither on the field swept by grape and musketry, refuge among the skirmishers, in the breast of a corporal.)

Bunny, lying in the grass,
Saw the shiny column pass,
Saw the starry banner fly,
Saw the chargers fret and fume,
Saw the flapping hat and plume —
Saw them with his moist and shy,
Most unspeculative eye.
Thinking only in the dew,
That it was a fine review —
Till a flash, not all of steel,
Where the rolling caisson's wheel
Brought a rumble and a roar
Rolling down that velvet floor,
And like blows of autumn flail
Sharply threshed the iron hail.

Bunny, thrilled by unknown fears,
Raised his soft and pointed ears,
Mumbled his prehensile lip,
Quivered his pulsating hip,
As the sharp, vindictive yell
Rose above the screaming shell:
Thought the world and all its men,
All the charging squadrons meant
All were rabbit hunters then,
All to capture him intent.
Bunny was not much to blame;
Wiser folk have thought the same —
Wiser folk, who think they spy
Every ill begins with "I."

Wildly ranting here and there,
Bunny sought the freer air,
Till he hopped below the hill,
And saw lying, close and still,
Men with muskets in their hands.
Never Bunny understands
That hypocrisy of sleep,
In the vigils grim they keep,
As recumbent on that spot
They elude the level shot.

One — a grave and quiet man,
Thinking of his wife and child
Where the Androscoggin smiled —
Felt the little rabbit creep,
Nestling by his arm and side.
Wakened from strategic sleep,
To that soft appeal replied,
Drew him to his blackened breast,
And —
But you have guessed the rest.
Softly o'er that chosen pair
Omnipresent Love and Care

Drew a mightier Hand and Arm,
Shielding them from every harm;
Right and left the bullets waved,
Saves the savior for the saved.

Who believes that equal grace
God extends in every place,
Little difference he scans
'Twixt a rabbit's God and man's.
— Bret Harte.

Reading . . . . *Lee as a Soldier*

At Lee's graduation at West Point, he became second lieutenant in the engineer corps. It was his duty in this capacity to strengthen the defenses of the various forts of the United States. His first work was at Hampton Roads.

On June 30, 1831, Lee married Mary Custis, a granddaughter of Martha Washington. They lived with her people in the old Custis mansion at Arlington. Three years later, Lee became assistant to the chief engineer of the army, in Washington. While he held this position, it was possible for him to live at home and to ride back and forth to Washington on his horse. This arrangement pleased him very much, for it allowed him to be with his family. He also enjoyed the ride, for he was an excellent rider and made an imposing figure mounted on his fine horse.

In 1837 he was sent to St. Louis to see what could be done to improve the channel of the Mississippi. There were great sandbars in the river in unexpected places, and many boulders upon which boats were often wrecked. Lee and his men sounded the river and made charts of the channel. Then the rocks were blown out with powder. Cribs and wing dams were built, which helped to force the river to clear its own channel. After completing his work in St. Louis, he was sent to New York to strengthen Fort Hamilton.

In 1846 Lee took part in the Mexican War. It was his business to plan and prepare the defenses. This he did with great skill. He also showed much wisdom and bravery in scouting. He was promoted three times during this war, finally being made a colonel. He was wounded but once and then only slightly. At the conclusion of the war, Lee returned to Arlington, but was soon sent to Baltimore to superintend the defenses being constructed at that place. He took his family with him and they remained in that city for three years.

In 1852 Lee, who was then forty-five years old, was appointed superintendent of the United States Military Academy at West Point. Since he had spent most of the years since his graduation from West Point on duty far from home, it seemed to him a happy change to settle down to the quiet life of an ordinary citizen. He was happy, too, to be again associated with young people, in whom he always had a fatherly interest. As superintendent of the academy, he tried to set before the boys such an example of right living and courtesy as would influence their after lives. He tried to lead the cadets to make the most of themselves, and to act always from the highest motives. Every Saturday evening he invited some of the boys to dinner at his house. Lee's dignified bearing, his kind, genial spirit, his courtesy and the grace and charm of Mrs. Lee's personality won the hearts of all, and inspired the boys to nobler living.

Three years later he was again promoted, being made lieutenant-colonel of the Second Cavalry. The warlike Indians in the Southwest were giving trouble, and Lee was sent to subdue them. This he did in a very creditable manner.

For years dark clouds of dissension had been slowly gathering over the land. In April, 1861, they burst in all their fury and our country was plunged into war. Lee was called by President Lincoln to take command of the Union army. In all his long years of service he had never failed to respond promptly to the orders of his superiors, but now his soul was sorely tried. He loved the nation he had served for many years, and he felt that it was his duty to respond to the President's call, yet how could he lead a hostile army into Virginia, the land of his birth, which he loved so dearly? With Lincoln's communication in his pocket he went home. Then he went to his room, asking that he be not disturbed. There he spent the night pacing the floor. At frequent intervals he knelt and prayed for divine guidance in settling the great question before him. When morning came he went down stairs with a calm face, only its pallor giving evidence of the night's struggle. He announced that his decision was made — he must forsake the Union; he could not take up arms against Virginia.

Soon after he was called to take command of the Confederate army. He accepted the call and showed so much wisdom, skill and foresight in directing his army that he won the admiration of the world. The Southern cause was lost, but the perseverance, loyalty and heroism of its soldiers and its great leader will never be forgotten. Robert E. Lee stands today not only as the greatest military genius of the Civil War, but as one of the greatest the world has ever known. At no time in his life did Lee reveal more clearly the grace and strength of his fine Christian character than at his surrender. It required great magnanimity to face defeat so calmly, with no trace of bitterness.

When the army was disbanded, Lee turned his attention to the difficult task of helping to restore the South. All about were scenes of such desolation and want as would have filled a less staunch heart with bitterness and discouragement, but Lee hopefully faced the future and did more than any one else to lift the South out of its desolate condition.

Recitation . . . . *The Sword of Robert Lee*

Forth from its scabbard, pure and bright,
Flashed the sword of Lee!
Far in the front of the deadly fight,
High o'er the brave, in the cause of right,
Its stainless sheen, like a beacon light,
Led us to victory.

Out of its scabbard, where full long
It slumbered peacefully —
Roused from its rest by the battle-song,
Shielding the feeble, smiting the strong,
Guarding the right, and avenging the wrong —
Gleamed the sword of Lee!

Forth from its scabbard, high in air,
Beneath Virginia's sky,
And they who saw it gleaming there,
And knew who bore it, knelt to swear
That where that sword led they would dare
To follow and to die.

Out of its scabbard! Never hand
Waved sword from stain as free,
Nor purer sword led braver band,
Nor braver bled for a brighter land,
Nor brighter land had a cause as grand,
Nor cause a chief like Lee!

Forth from its scabbard! All in vain!
Forth flashed the sword of Lee!
'Tis shrouded now in its sheath again,
It sleeps the sleep of our noble slain,
Defeated, yet without a stain,
Proudly and peacefully.

-- Father J. A. Ryan.

Song . . . . *Dixie*

Recitation . . . . *Grandpa's Old Chum*

My grandpa he was in the war,—
Grandpa and his old chum,
Who lives down there at Engle Bar;
It's fun to have him come.
And grandpa shakes him by the hand
And pounds him on the back — my land —
'Tis fun to see them laugh and I
Have seen them laughing when they cry.
When his old chum said he had been
To the Encampment, and had seen
Those fellows they call C. V. A.'s
Who's fought with him through those rough days,
Then grandpa cried, "Now don't tell a lie;
You say you saw old Tom McClure,
I'd give a hundred dollars sure
To see that fellow. And say, was he
As jolly as he used to be?
There's many a time we would have died
Of homesickness and sick beside,
But for his monkey-shines — and say,
How he could sing. Well, anyway,
He was a trump! And you saw him?
I want to know! And Lanky Jim,
George Jones and Bill and Bob Balloo;
I wish I had gone there, too.
What's that, old chum, I heard you say?
You're going? No! You're going to stay
And lunch with me"; and grandpa he
Just makes him stay; and ma and me,
And little sister what's just come,
He don't like as well as his old chum.

Song . . . . *The Bonny Blue Flag*

Reading . *General Lee's Farewell Address to His Soldiers*

Headquarters Army Northern Virginia;
Appomattox C. H., April 10, 1865.

General Orders No. 9.

After four years of arduous service, marked by unsurpassed courage and fortitude, the Army of Northern Virginia has been compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and resources.

I need not tell the survivors of so many hard-fought battles, who have remained steadfast to the last, that I have consented to this result from no distrust of them; but feeling that valor and devotion could accomplish nothing that would compensate for the loss that must have attended a continuance of the contest, I determined to avoid the useless sacrifice of those whose past services have endeared them to their countrymen.

By the terms of the Agreement, officers and men can return to their homes and remain until exchanged. You will take with you the satisfaction that proceeds from the consciousness of duty faithfully performed, and I earnestly pray that a merciful God will extend to you His blessing and protection. With an unceasing admiration of your constancy and devotion to your Country, and a grateful remembrance of your kind and generous consideration for myself, I bid you all an Affectionate Farewell.

R. E. Lee.

Recitation . . . . *Music in Camp*

Two armies covered hill and plain,
Where Rappahannock's waters
Ran deeply crimsoned with the stain
Of battle's recent slaughters.

The summer clouds lay pitched like tents
In meads of heavenly azure;
And each dread gun of the elements
Slept in its hid embrasure.

The breeze so softly blew, it made
No forest leaf to quiver,
And the smoke of the random cannonade
Rolled slowly from the river.

And now, where circling hills looked down,
With cannon grimly planted,
O'er listless camp and silent town,
The golden sunset slanted.

When on the fervid air there came
  A strain, now rich, now tender;
The music seemed itself aflame
  With day's departing splendor.

A Federal band, which eve and morn
  Played measures brave and nimble,
Had just struck up with flute and horn
  And lively clash of cymbal.

Down flocked the soldiers to the banks,
  Till margined by its pebbles,
One wooded shore was blue with "Yanks,"
  And one was gray with "Rebels."

Then all was still, and then the band
  With movements light and tricksy,
Made stream and forest, hill and strand,
  Reverberate with "Dixie."

The conscious stream with burnished glow,
  Went proudly o'er its pebbles
But thrilled throughout its deepest flow
  With yelling of the Rebels.

Again a pause, and then again
  The trumpets pealed sonorous,
And "Yankee Doodle" was the strain
  To which the shores gave chorus.

The laughing ripple shoreward flew
  To kiss the shining pebbles;
Loud shrieked the swarming boys in blue
  Defiance to the Rebels.

And yet once more the bugles sang,
  Above the stormy riot;
No shout upon the evening rang —
  There reigned a holy quiet.

The sad, low stream, its noiseless tread
  Poured o'er the glistening pebbles;
And silent now the Yankees stood,
  And silent stood the Rebels.

No unresponsive soul had heard
    That plaintive note's appealing,
So deeply "Home, Sweet Home," had stirred
    The hidden founts of feeling.

Or blue or gray, the soldier sees,
    As by the wand of fairy,
The cottage 'neath the live-oak trees,
    The cabin by the prairie.

Or cold or warm, his native skies
    Bend in their beauty o'er him;
Seen through the tear-mist in his eyes,
    His loved ones stood before him.

As fades the iris after rain,
    In April's tearful weather,
The vision vanished as the strain
    And daylight died together.

But memory, waked by music's art,
    Expressed in simplest numbers,
Subdued the sternest Yankee's heart,
    Made light the Rebel's slumbers.

And fair the form of music shines,
    That bright, celestial creature,
Who still 'mid war's embattled lines
    Gave this one touch of nature.

— Jno. R. Thompson.

Reading . . . . *The Meeting between Grant and Lee*

(From *Personal Memoirs of U. S. Grant.* Copyright by The Century Co.)

When I left camp that morning I had not expected so soon the result that was then taking place, and consequently was in rough garb. I was without a sword — as I usually was when on horseback on the field — and wore a soldier's blouse for a coat, with the shoulder-straps of my rank to indicate to the army who I was. When I went into the house I found General Lee. We greeted each other, and after shaking hands took our seats. I had my staff with me, a good portion of whom were in the room during the whole of the interview. . . . General Lee was dressed in a full uniform, which was entirely new, and was wearing a sword of considerable value — very likely the sword which had been presented by the State of Virginia; at all events, it was an entirely different sword from the one which would ordinarily be worn in the field. In my rough traveling suit — the uniform of a private, with the straps of a lieutenant-general — I must have contrasted very strangely with a man so handsomely dressed, six feet high, and of faultless form. But this was not a matter that I thought of until afterward.

We soon fell into a conversation about old army times. He remarked that he remembered me very well in the old army; and I told him that as a matter of course I remembered him perfectly; but from the difference between our rank and years (there being about sixteen years' difference between our ages), I had thought it very likely that I had not attracted his attention sufficiently to be remembered by him after such a long interval. Our conversation grew so pleasant that I almost forgot the object of our meeting.

After the conversation had run on in this way for some time, General Lee called my attention to the object of our meeting, and said that he had asked for this interview for the purpose of getting from me the terms I proposed to give his army. I said that I meant merely that his army should lay down their arms, not to take them up again during the war unless duly and properly exchanged. He said that he had so understood my letter. Then we gradually fell off again into conversation about matters foreign to the subject which had brought us together. This continued for some little time, when General Lee again interrupted the course of the conversation by suggesting that the terms I proposed to give his army ought to be written out. I called to General Parker, secretary of my staff, for writing materials, and commenced writing out the terms. . . .

When I put my pen to the paper I did not know the first word that I should make use of in writing the terms. I only knew what was in my mind, and I wished to express it clearly, so that there could be no mistaking it. As I wrote on, the thought occurred to me that the officers had their own private horses and effects, which were important to them, but of no value to us; also that it would be an unnecessary humiliation to call upon them to deliver their side-arms.

No conversation — not one word — passed between General Lee and myself either about private property, side-arms, or kindred subjects. When he read over that part of the terms about side-arms, horses, and private property of the officers, he remarked, with some feeling, I thought, that this would have a happy effect upon his army. . . . The much-talked-of surrendering of Lee's sword and my handing it back — this and much more that has been said about it is the purest romance. The word sword or side-arms was not mentioned by either of us until I wrote it in the terms. There was no premeditation, and it did not occur to me until the moment I wrote it down. If I had happened to omit it, and General Lee had called my attention to it, I should have put it in the terms, precisely as I acceded to the provision about the soldiers retaining their horses. . . . Lee and I separated as cordially as we had met, he returning to his own lines; and all went into bivouac for the night at Appomattox.

Recitation . . . . *The Blue and the Gray*

By the flow of the inland river,
Where the fleets of iron have fled,
Where the blades of the grave grass quiver,
Asleep are the ranks of the dead:—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Under the one, the Blue;
Under the other, the Gray.

These, in the robings of glory,
Those in the gloom of defeat,
All, with the battle-blood gory,
In the dusk of Eternity meet:—

Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Under the laurel, the Blue;
Under the willow, the Gray.

From the silence of sorrowful hours
The desolate mourners go,
Lovingly laden with flowers,
Alike for the friend, and the foe:—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Under the roses, the Blue;
Under the lilies, the Gray.

So with an equal splendor,
The morning sun-rays fall,
With a touch, impartially tender,
On the blossoms blooming for all:—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Broidered with gold, the Blue;
Mellowed with gold, the Gray.

So, when the summer calleth,
On forest and field of grain,
With an equal murmur falleth
The cooling drip of the rain:—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Wet with the rain, the Blue;
Wet with the rain, the Gray.

Sadly, but not with upbraiding,
The generous deed was done;
In the storms of the years that are fading
No braver battle was won:—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Under the blossoms, the Blue;
Under the garlands, the Gray.

No more shall the war-cry sever,
Or the winding rivers be red:—
They banish our anger forever
When they laurel the graves of our dead!—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the Judgment day:—
Love and tears for the Blue;
Tears and love for the Gray.— Francis M. Finch

Recitation . . . . *A Georgia Volunteer*

Far up the lonely mountain side my wandering footsteps led;
The moss lay thick beneath my feet, the pine sighed overhead.
The trace of a dismantled fort lay in the forest nave,
And in the shadow near my path I saw a soldier's grave.

The bramble wrestled with the weed upon the lowly mound,
The simple headboard, rudely writ, had rotted to the ground;
I raised it with a reverent hand, from dust its words to clear,
But time had blotted all but these — "A Georgia Volunteer."

. . . .

I heard the Shenandoah roll along the vale below,
I saw the Alleghanies rise towards the realms of snow.
The "Valley Campaign" rose to mind — its leader's name — and then
I knew the sleeper had been one of Stonewall Jackson's men.

Yet whence he came, what lip shall say — whose tongue will ever tell —
What desolate hearths and hearts have been because he fell?
What sad-eyed maiden braids her hair, her hair which he held dear?
One lock of which, perchance, lies with the Georgia Volunteer!

What mother, with long watching eyes and white lips cold and dumb,
Waits with appalling patience for her darling boy to come?
Her boy! whose mountain grave swells up but one of many a scar
Cut on the face of our fair land by gory-handed war.

What fights he fought, what wounds he wore, are all unknown to fame;
Remember, on his lonely grave there is not e'en a name!
That he fought well and bravely, too, and held his country dear,
We know, else he had never been a Georgia Volunteer.

He sleeps — what need to question now if he were wrong or right?
He knows, ere this, whose cause was just in God the Father's sight.
He wields no warlike weapons now, returns no foeman's thrust —
Who but a coward would revile an honored soldier's dust?

Roll, Shenandoah, proudly roll, adown thy rocky glen;
Above thee lies the grave of one of Stonewall Jackson's men.
Beneath the cedar and the pine, in solitude austere,
Unknown, unnamed, forgotten, lies a Georgia Volunteer.

— Mary A. Townsend.

Recitation . . . . . . *The Conquered Banner*

(Pantomime)

Furl that Banner, for 'tis weary;
Round its staff 'tis drooping dreary:
Furl it, fold it,— it is best;
For there's not a man to wave it,
And there's not a sword to save it,
And there's not one left to lave it
In the blood which heroes gave it,
And its foes now scorn and brave it:
Furl it, hide it,— let it rest!

Take that Banner down! 'tis tattered;
Broken is its staff and shattered;
And the valiant hosts are scattered,
Over whom it floated high.
Oh, 'tis hard for us to fold it,
Hard to think there's none to hold it,
Hard that those who once unrolled it
Now must furl it with a sigh!
Furl that Banner — furl it sadly!
Once ten thousands hailed it gladly,
And ten thousands wildly, madly,
Swore it should forever wave;
Swore that foeman's sword should never
Hearts like theirs entwined dissever,
Till that flag should float forever
O'er their freedom or their grave!

Furl that Banner! True, 'tis gory,
Yet 'tis wreathed around with glory,
And 'twill live in song and story
Though its folds are in the dust!
For its fame on brightest pages,
Penned by poets and by sages,
Shall go sounding down the ages —
Furl its folds though now we must.

Furl that Banner, softly, slowly!
Treat it gently — it is holy,
For it droops above the dead.
Touch it not — unfold it never;
Let it droop there, furled forever,—
For its people's hopes are fled!

— Abram Joseph Ryan.

Reading . . . . *The Southern Soldier*

You of the North have had drawn for you with a master's hand the picture of your returning armies. You have heard how, in the pomp and circumstance of war, they came back to you, marching with proud and victorious tread, reading their glory in a nation's eyes.

Will you bear with me while I tell you of another army that sought its home in defeat and not in victory, in pathos and not in splendor?

Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier, as buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole which was to bear testimony to his children of his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April, 1865. Think of him as ragged, half-starved, heavy-hearted, enfeebled by want and wounds; having fought to exhaustion, he surrenders his gun, wrings the hands of his comrades in silence, and lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot the old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brow and begins the slow and painful journey. What does he find — let me ask you who went to your homes eager to find in the welcome you had justly earned, full payment for four years' sacrifice — What does he find when, having followed the battle-stained cross against overwhelming odds, dreading death not half so much as surrender, he reaches the home he left so prosperous and beautiful?

He finds his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barns empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless, his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status, his comrades slain, and the burdens of others heavy on his shoulders.

Crushed by defeat, his very traditions gone; without money, credit, material, or training; and besides all this confronted with the gravest problem that ever met human intelligence — the establishing of a status for the vast body of his liberated slaves.

What does he do — this hero in gray with a heart of gold? Does he sit down in sullenness and despair? Not for a day. Surely God who had stripped him of his prosperity, inspired him in his adversity. As ruin was never so overwhelming, never was restoration swifter.

The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow, horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plow, and fields that ran red with blood in April were green with the harvest in June. Never was nobler duty confided to human hands than the uplifting and upbuilding of the prostrate and bleeding South, misguided, perhaps, but beautiful in her suffering.

In the record of her social, industrial, and political evolution, we await with confidence the verdict of the world. —HENRY W. GRADY.

Reading . . . . . . *Lee as a College President*

In 1865, General Lee was asked to become president of Washington College at Lexington, Virginia, and accepted the position. At this time he said: "I have led the young men of the South to battle; I have seen many of them die upon the field. I shall now devote myself to training young men to do their duty in life." No one could have been better prepared to fulfil this pledge than Robert E. Lee.

He found the college in a run-down condition. There was little money in the treasury, instructors were inefficient and the discipline lax. He set to work to make the college all that it should be, and his success proved again his ability to lead men. He was firm, yet very kind and thoughtful, and won the love and admiration of the students. By his example and by fatherly talks with the students he sought to lead each one to be a Christian. For five years he continued his labors in the college. Then his health began to fail, and on the morning of Oct. 12, 1870, General Lee passed away. Thus the nation lost one of its noblest characters, one of its best-loved men, and one of its greatest leaders.

ecitation . . . . *Gone Forward*

(This poem was suggested by Gen. Lee's last words, "Let the Tent be Struck.")

Yes, "Let the tent be struck," Victorious morning
Through every crevice flashes in a day
Magnificent beyond all earth's adorning;
The night is over; wherefore should he stay?
And wherefore should our voices choke to say,
"The General has gone forward!"

Life's foughten field not once beheld surrender,
But with superb endurance, present, past,
Our pure Commander, lofty, simple, tender,
Through good, through ill, held his high purpose fast,
Wearing his armor spotless,— 'till at last
Death gave the final, "Forward!"

All hearts grew sudden palsied: yet what said he,
Thus summoned?— "Let the tent be struck!"—
For when
Did call of duty fail to find him ready
Nobly to do his duty in sight of men,
For God's and for his country's sake — and then
To watch, wait or go forward?

We will not weep,— We dare not!— Such a story
As his large life writes on the century's years
Should crown our bosoms with a flush of glory,
That manhood's type, supremest that appears
Today, he shows the ages. Nay, no tears
Because he has gone forward!

Gone forward? Whither? Where the marshalled legions,
Christ's well-worn soldiers, from their conflicts cease,—
Where Faith's true Red-Cross Knights repose in regions
Thickly studded with the calm, white tents of peace,—
Thither, right joyful to accept release,
The General has gone forward!

Shortly after Lee's death, the women of Richmond began to collect funds with which to erect a monument to his memory. Through their efforts over $15,000 was secured. This fund gradually grew. Old soldiers, many societies and children throughout the South contributed from their slender means, until in all a sum of $65,000 was collected. To a noted French sculptor, Monsieur Mercie, was given the task of making the statue. Lee's best photographs, his uniform, a spur and one of his shoes were sent to the sculptor to assist him in his work. Miss Mary Lee, who was then in Paris, gave frequent suggestions, which helped the sculptor to make the likeness natural.

On May 3, 1890, the statue reached Richmond. It was packed in three boxes which were placed on separate wagons, one of which was drawn by old soldiers, one by the men of Richmond, and one by the women. On the 29th of May the statue was unveiled with appropriate exercises. Many noted men, among them generals who had followed Lee through the war, came to take part in the demonstration. The statue and pedestal are sixty-one feet in height and represent Lee clad in his Confederate gray uniform, a sash at his waist, a sword at his side, mounted on Traveller, his war horse. (See illustration, page 181.) This statue is a beautiful expression of the love and loyalty of the Southern people.

TRIBUTES TO LEE

He was a foe without hate, a friend without treachery. a soldier without cruelty, and a victim without murmuring. He was a public officer without vices, a private citizen without wrong, a neighbor without reproach, a Christian without hypocrisy, and a man without guilt. He was Caesar without his ambition, Frederick without his tyranny, Napoleon without his selfishness, and Washington without his reward. He was as obedient to authority as a servant and royal in authority as a king. He was as gentle as a woman in life.

pure and modest as a virgin in thought, watchful as a Roman vestal, submissive to law as Socrates, and grand in battle as Achilles.— Benjamin Hill.

LEE'S GENIUS

It is not easy to compare Lee with the great soldiers of former ages except as a strategist. In strategy it is certain that he stands in the front rank of the great warriors of the world. The impartial historian, in reviewing his campaigns and the difficult conditions with which he was always confronted, must at least declare that no commander could have accomplished more. The world places Lee by the side of its greatest captains, because, surrounded on all sides by conflicting anxieties, interests, and the gravity of the issues involved, he only surrendered his battle-stained, bullet-riddled banner after demonstrating that all had been done that mortal could accomplish. The profession of the soldier has been honored by his renown, the cause of education by his virtues, religion by his piety.

"The greatest gift the hero leaves his race
Is to have been a hero."

— Fitzhugh Lee.

The London *Standard* gave this tribute to Lee:

"A country which has given birth to men like him, and those who followed him, may look the chivalry of Europe in the face without shame; for the lands of Sidney and of Bayard never brought forth a nobler soldier, gentleman and Christian, than Robert E. Lee."

Lee was called "the great captain of his age"—"the great general of the South"—"a good knight, noble of heart and strong of purpose, and both a soldier and a gentleman."

Lee, like other great men, was gentle, generous and good. It was a saying of his that duty was the sublimest word in the language. He never used tobacco or any intoxicating liquors. He felt kindly towards the Union army and spoke generously of their valor as soldiers. — Lawton B. Evans.

Song . . . . ***Maryland! My Maryland!***

The despot's heel is on thy shore,
Maryland! My Maryland!
His torch is at thy temple door,
Maryland! My Maryland!
Avenge the patriotic gore — that fleck'd
the streets of Baltimore.
And be the battle queen of yore
Maryland! My Maryland!

Hark! to a wand'ring son's appeal,
Maryland! My Maryland!
My mother State, to thee I kneel,
Maryland! My Maryland!
For life and death, for woe and weal —
thy peerless chivalry reveal,
And gird thy beauteous limbs with steel,
Maryland! My Maryland!

Come, for thy shield is bright and strong,
Maryland! My Maryland!
Come, for thy dalliance does thee wrong,
Maryland My Maryland
Come to thy own heroic throng — that stalks
with Liberty along,
And give a new key to thy song,
Maryland! My Maryland!

I see the blush upon thy cheek,
Maryland! My Maryland!
But thou wast ever bravely meek,
Maryland! My Maryland!
But lo, there surges forth a shriek — from
hill to hill, from creek to creek,
Potomac calls to Chesapeake.
Maryland! My Maryland!
— Jas. R. Randall.

SUGGESTIONS

The schoolroom may be made attractive for a Lee program by placing a large picture of Lee in the front of the room, and decorating with flags, ferns and flowers.

For this program, choose any national songs that the children especially enjoy.

A. Lincoln

LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY

FEB. 12

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

This man whose homely face you look upon,
Was one of nature's masterful, great men;
Born with strong arms, that unfought battles won;
Direct of speech, and cutting with the pen.
Chosen for large designs, he had the art
Of winning with his humor, and he went
Straight to his mark, which was the human heart;
Wise too, for what he could not break, he bent.

Upon his back a more than Atlas-load,
The burden of the Commonwealth, was laid;
He stooped; and rose up to it, though the road
Shot suddenly downwards, not a whit dismayed.
Hold, warriors, councillors, kings! All now give place
To this dear benefactor of the race.
— Richard Henry Stoddard.

pening Song . . . *Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean*
ecitation . . . . *Ode*

(Sung in the Town Hall, Concord, July 4, 1857.)

O tenderly the haughty day
Fills his blue urn with fire;
One morn is in the mighty heaven,
And one in our desire.

The cannon booms from town to town,
Our pulses beat not less,
The joy-bells chime their tidings down,
Which children's voices bless.

For He that flung the broad blue fold
O'er mantling land and sea,
One-third part of the sky unrolled
For the banner of the free.

The men are ripe of Saxon kind
To build an equal state,—
To take the statute from the mind
And make of duty fate.

United States! the ages plead,—
Present and Past in under-song,—
Go put your creed into your deed,
Nor speak with double tongue.

For sea and land don't understand
Nor skies without a frown
See rights for which the one hand fights
By the other cloven down.

Be just at home; then write your scroll
Of honor o'er the sea,
And bid the broad Atlantic roll,
A ferry of the free.

And henceforth there shall be no chain,
Save underneath the sea
The wires shall murmur through the main
Sweet songs of liberty.

The conscious stars accord above,
The waters wild below,
And under, through the cable wove,
His fiery errands go.

For He that worketh high and wise,
Nor pauses in His plan,
Will take the sun out of the skies,
Ere freedom out of man. — Ralph Waldo Emerson.

Reading . . . . *Lincoln's Boyhood*

Little Abe Lincoln grew rapidly even though the food he had was scanty and lacked variety. He became a tall, awkward, homely boy, but he was strong and wiry. He was full of fun, kindhearted and thoughtful.

The new mother was anxious the children should have an education and sent them to school for a few weeks at a time, whenever it was possible. Abe and his cousin, Dennis, spelled through Webster's spelling book twice. In his spare time Abe would be writing with charcoal on bits of board, fence rails or the wooden fire shovel. When Abe found something in his reading that he liked, he would copy it on a piece of paper if he could find one; if not, on a new shingle. He would put it away until he had time to learn it by heart. One day he got some wrapping paper at Gentryville to write on. Dennis made ink out of blackberry roots and copperas and pens out of wild turkey quills. Then the boys wrote on paper with ink, but the ink ate holes in the paper, so it was not a great success. Whenever there was a spelling match in the neighborhood, it was Abe who stood up the longest.

Abe read everything that he could find. Bits of old newspapers were treasured, for in them he frequently found Henry Clay's speeches. These he would hide until he could commit them to memory. Some one once loaned him a copy of *The Arabian Nights* and this the boy read eagerly. As there were no lamps or candles in the Lincoln home, he would stretch himself on the hearth before the fire evenings and read until his father covered the fire for the night and sent him off to bed. He memorized most of these stories.

He one day came across two old books which proved to be the laws of Indiana. He was delighted with them and began to study them at once. Then he was so anxious to hear a real trial in a courtroom that he walked fifteen miles to attend one. He enjoyed it so much that he went often to the same courtroom to listen to the trials. It is said that one day, after hearing a lawyer make an able speech in defense of his client, Lincoln got up, walked across the room, and shook hands with him, saying, "That was the finest speech I ever heard in my life." This commendation, coming from so young and inexperienced a boy as Abe Lincoln was then, must have amused the lawyer, but that speech made Lincoln wish with all his heart that he could speak as well and led him to hope that some day he could be a lawyer.

During the day, Abe worked hard helping his father about the farm or in the carpenter shop, or helping the neighbors. He was so kind and so handy that every one liked to have him around. He had used an axe ever since he was ten years old. As his strength grew, his skill increased until no one in the country could beat him chopping wood or splitting rails. If his outdoor tasks were done, he always made himself useful about the house, bringing water from the spring, carrying in wood or entertaining the children.

At fifteen, Abe was six feet four inches tall. His hair and eyes were dark, and his face was sallow. He was slender, somewhat inclined to stoop and was narrow through his chest. He was always well and was very strong. He could lift weights that would require two or three ordinary men to move. He was an expert wrestler; no one could "lick him." He could run faster, jump farther and throw a ball farther than any other boy in the neighborhood.

He was the life of every gathering. He could see a joke readily and could give one as quickly. From his father he had inherited a good memory, a love of humor and the ability to tell stories. He remembered all that he heard or read. Thus he was able to furnish plenty of amusement. He could also make funny rhymes to suit almost any occasion, and the boys appreciated these.

Abe finally secured a place in the little village of Gentryville which was about a mile and a half from home. He was to assist in a little country store and to do odd jobs outside whenever the occasion demanded. People dropped into the store to chat and Abe greatly enjoyed their discussions of men and the important events of the day. He often joined in the arguments. Those who heard him realized that he was an unusually clear thinker. He made scrap books and in one of them he wrote:

Abraham Lincoln
His hand and pen
He will be good but
God knows when.

When Abe was nineteen, Mr. Gentry, for whom the town was named, bought a flat boat, loaded it with bacon, corn and other Indiana products and asked Abe and another young man to pole it down to New Orleans. Lincoln was delighted with this chance to see something of the world. The boys reached New Orleans in safety, disposed of their cargo, sold the boat and returned home.

In 1830 the Lincolns and their relatives in Indiana decided to move to Illinois. There were thirteen altogether. They sold most of their stock, loaded the rest of their possessions into covered wagons drawn by oxen and traveled for two weeks. They had trouble fording rivers and crossing muddy flats, but Abe kept every one goodnatured by his funny stories and his jokes.

They settled near the Sangamon River. Abe helped his father clear fifteen acres of land for corn, build a log cabin, and then split enough walnut rails to fence in their fields.

He was at this time about twenty-one, so from then on his time was his own and he was free to do as he chose.

Song . . . . *The Red, White and Blue* citation . *O, Why Should the Spirit of Mortal Be Proud*

(Lincoln's favorite poem.)

O, why should the spirit of mortal be proud?
Like a swift-fleeting meteor, a fast flying cloud,
A flash of lightning, a break of the wave,
He passeth from life to his rest in the grave.

The leaves of the oak and the willow shall fade,
Be scattered around, and together be laid;
As the young and the old, the low and the high,
Shall crumble to dust and together shall lie.

. . . . .

The head of the king, that the sceptre hath borne;
The brow of the priest, that the mitre hath worn;
The eye of the sage, and the heart of the brave,
Are hidden and lost in the depths of the grave.

. . . . .

So the multitude goes, like the flower or weed,
That withers away to let others succeed;
So the multitude comes, even those we behold,
To repeat every tale that has often been told.

For we are the same our fathers have been;
We see the same sights our fathers have seen;
We drink the same stream, we see the same sun,
And run the same course our fathers have run.

. . . . .

Yea, hope and despondency, pleasure and pain,
Are mingled together in sunshine and rain;
And the smile and the tear, and the song and the dirge,
Still follow each other like surge upon surge.

'Tis the wink of an eye; 'tis the draught of a breath
From the blossom of health to the paleness of death,
From the gilded saloon to the bier and the shroud;
O, why should the spirit of mortal be proud?

— William Knox.

ading . . . . *Lincoln's Manhood*

When Lincoln was 21 years old, he started out to make
way in the world. He found a place to clerk in a little

country store in West Salem, Ill. He was pleased with this situation for it gave him an opportunity to meet many people and to continue his studying. He talked to every one who came in and thus learned a good deal about human nature. In his spare minutes he often stretched himself at full length on the counter and read. He borrowed books of every one who owned them.

He made the acquaintance of the village school master and asked him to assist him with his books. The school master advised Abe to study English grammar, but neither of them possessed a text book. Finally they learned of a man who lived six miles away who owned a grammar. Abe walked out to borrow it and for the next six weeks he applied himself diligently to the task of mastering its rules and principles. He did this so well that in later years the letters he wrote and the speeches he made were masterpieces of English.

He liked to argue and often took part in neighborhood debates upon such subjects as "Which is busier, the bee or the ant?" "Which is stronger, wind or water?" "Which is more useful, water or fire?" His arguments were so clear, so convincing and so well expressed, that he usually won the debates.

By Lincoln's care in details, he won the respect of everyone. He allowed no bad language used in the store and he was careful that everyone got just what he asked for.

One day, a big, rough fellow came in and began to swear. There were women in at the same time. Abe called to the man to stop swearing. He paid no attention. Lincoln spoke the second time, but the man kept on. Then Abe slipped over the counter, grabbed the fellow by the neck, pulled him out of the store and shook him well.

One morning a woman who had bought some tea of Abe the day before, was much surprised to find him at her door. He explained that they found their scales had been wrong when she made her purchase. Hence she had not received as much tea as was due her, and he had come to bring the rest.

Another day after a customer left the store, Abe figured up her bill and learned he had charged her a few cents too much. That night after closing the store, he walked several miles to return the change to her. Thus he won the title "Honest Abe."

In the spring, Mr. Offutt, the store keeper, sent Lincoln to New Orleans with a flatboat loaded with produce. John Hanks accompanied him. They stayed longer in the south this time than Lincoln did on his first journey and saw more of the country and its customs. They saw a slave market — a sight which made Lincoln so angry, so sad, and thoughtful that he said to his companion, "If I ever get a chance to hit that institution, I'll hit it hard, John."

Quite suddenly the man for whom Lincoln worked, failed in business. This left the young man without a position. He made up his mind he would run for the state legislature. He therefore announced himself as a candidate for representative from his district, and set out to acquaint the people with his ideas. His speeches were short, to the point and forcibly expressed. People liked him. They believed him honest and sincere. He won a large vote but did not win the election.

In the spring of 1832, the Sac Indians became dissatisfied with their new home in Iowa, and attempted to return to Illinois and Wisconsin. A famous chief, Black Hawk, led them. They killed a number of white settlers and this frightened the whole state. The governor of Illinois at once called for troops to assist in subduing the Indians.

Lincoln enlisted and was made captain of his company. He knew nothing at all about military affairs, but he did his best. His company moved northward. The men were rough and hard to manage, but they respected their captain. He was always thoughtful and goodnatured, but firm.

When Lincoln returned from the war, which lasted but a short time, he concluded to open a little store. He found a partner to assist him, but the man proved to be worthless, and in time, the enterprise failed. The partner ran away, leaving Abe to assume all the debts. It took him years to pay them all, but he never thought of giving up.

Lincoln then began to study law in earnest, but he knew it would be some time before he could begin to practice. He must find some way in which to earn his living while he studied. As the country was new, surveyors were in great demand, so Abe concluded he would try this work. A friend loaned him a book, and assisted him in mastering it. At the end of six weeks, the young surveyor took his first work. About this time he was made postmaster of West Salem. People smilingly said that Abe carried the post office about in his hat, since the mail came but once a week and there was so little of it. He was able to keep busy in this way and to pay for his food and lodgings, but he had little to spare.

One day Lincoln passed a man who was trying to pull down an old log cabin and cut it into stove wood. The man was barefooted, thinly clothed and apparently half starved. The day was cold and windy. Lincoln turned around and spoke to the man, learning that he was to receive a dollar for the job and with this he meant to buy some shoes. Then he told the man to go to the nearest house and get warm, and taking the ax, he made short work of the job. The poor man never forgot the kindness.

The year that Lincoln was 25 years old, he again ran for the state legislature and was elected. As he lacked funds to establish himself in the state capital, he borrowed $200 from a friend.

People at the capital were at first inclined to make fun of this tall, ungainly man, but he soon won their respect by his quiet, genial manner and his sincerity. At that time there were nine legislators from Lincoln's district, all of whom were six feet tall or more. They were called the "Long Nine." Lincoln was the tallest and he was nicknamed "the Sangamon Chief." Since he was a young man, he did not speak often in the legislative gatherings, but listened closely to all that was said. When he did speak, every one was impressed by his clear vision and wisdom.

When Lincoln was somewhat over 30, he met Miss Mary Todd, a young woman from Kentucky, who was visiting in

Springfield. Nov. 4, 1842, he married her. A little later, he bought a home in Springfield and began to prosper in a modest way. He helped his father and mother and others who needed assistance.

In 1846 Lincoln was elected a member of the United States Congress. Here he met some of America's most famous statesmen. Among them were Daniel Webster, John Quincy Adams and John C. Calhoun. Stephen A. Douglas was also in Congress then.

At this time slavery was the great topic of the day and one upon which Lincoln felt keenly. He felt that it was wrong and should not be allowed to extend farther, but he was opposed to freeing the slaves without re-imbursing the owners. He thought it might be a good plan to transport them to South America where a colony could be founded and the negroes be given suitable employment. It grieved him sorely to note the ill feeling over this question which was daily growing more bitter. He hoped a satisfactory solution of the problem would be found, but he maintained that the Union must be saved.

In Congress, Lincoln preferred to listen to the discussions of the older men but occasionally he spoke himself. His speeches were always excellent and revealed a clear comprehension of important matters.

In 1858, Lincoln was nominated on the republican ticket for United States Senator. Stephen A. Douglas was the democratic candidate. The two men held very different ideas regarding slavery. Both returned to Illinois to explain their views to the people. They went together from place to place debating questions of national importance. Although Lincoln was rather ungainly in appearance, he possessed so much quiet dignity and was so persuasive in his arguments that he made a great impression, not only upon the people of Illinois, but upon men throughout the nation. Lincoln became famous for the purity of his English, for his great tact, his never failing good humor and his kind-heartedness. He was unselfish, reliable, "Honest Abe." He not only won the confidence of the people but he kept it. However, Douglas won the election. Two years later, when the nation was shaken to its very foundation by dissensions, the people turned to Abraham Lincoln as the man with the clearest vision and the greatest wisdom to lead it out of its great distress.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Reading . . . . *Lincoln as President*

On Feb. 11, 1861, Lincoln left Springfield to assume his arduous duties as President of the United States. After boarding the train, he stepped to the rear platform and spoke to the great throng that had gathered to see him off. His speech shows the character of the man and his attitude toward the great task which awaited him:

> "Friends: No one, who has never been placed in a like position, can understand my feelings at this hour, nor the oppressive sadness I feel at this parting. For more than a quarter of a century I have lived among you, and during all that time I have received nothing but kindness at your hands. Here, I have lived from my youth until now I am an old man. Here, the most sacred ties of earth were assumed. Here, all my children were born; here, one of them is buried. To you, dear friends, I owe all that I have, all that I am. All the strange, checkered past seems to crowd now upon my mind. To-day, I leave you. I go to assume a task more difficult than that which devolved upon Washington. Unless the great God who assisted him shall be with and aid me, I shall fail; but if the same omniscient mind and almighty arm that directed and protected him shall guide and support me, I shall not fail — I shall succeed! Let us all pray that the God of our fathers may not forsake us now. To him, I commend you all. Permit me to ask that, with equal sincerity and faith, you will invoke his wisdom and guidance for me. With these words I must leave you, for how long I know not. Friends, one and all, I must now bid you an affectionate farewell."

Lincoln was inaugurated, March 4, 1861. A noteworthy incident of that occasion was that the man who stood nearest him and held his hat was Stephen A. Douglas, his opponent and greatest rival. Douglas finally became one of Lincoln's warmest friends.

A little more than a month after Lincoln became President the Civil War began. He called at once for 75,000 men to defend the Union, and 100,000 responded. He knew little about warfare, but he was the Commander-in-chief of the army, so it was necessary that he learn something of military tactics. He began to study them. At the same time he had to plan for food and ammunition for the soldiers, attend to hundreds of callers and read daily the reports of his generals. Each day he went carefully over the list of those who were held on such serious charges as desertion, sleeping while acting as sentinels or failing to comply with orders. Such people were usually shot, but Lincoln never allowed this punishment if he could possibly find an excuse for preventing it. Many a heart-broken mother, who called upon him to plead for her son's life, went home rejoicing and blessing the kind-hearted President.

Although busy from morning till night, sorely oppressed by the cares of state and the perplexities of war, Lincoln found time nearly every day to visit the hospitals where his sympathy, his words of encouragement and his humorous stories did much to cheer the soldiers. They lovingly called him "Father Abraham."

When the war was over, there was much rejoicing. While much remained to be done to set the country right, Lincoln felt that a great weight had been lifted from his shoulders. He had again been elected President and was laying plans for assisting the South to recover from the effect of the awful struggle. But on the evening of the 14th of April, while attending the theater with his wife and some friends, an actor shot him. He died early the following morning.

The whole nation mourned for its fallen leader. Flags floated at half mast, bells tolled and everywhere the sorrow which filled the hearts of the people was manifest.

Not only at home but abroad, people mourned for the man whose purity, simplicity and nobility of character they admired and honored. Never before or since has the passing of any man been so keenly felt throughout the civilized world.

Lincoln died at the age of 56 years. His life was a long patient struggle to attain his ideals. He encountered unusual difficulties but by his determination and perseverance, he over-came them. Thus he rose from the humblest station in life to one of the most exalted the world has to offer. But best of all, his sense of honor and justice, his love for mankind and his nobility of character grew with the years. We honor him today not only as our first American, but as one of the most truly great men of all time.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Recitation . . . . . *Lincoln's Gettysburg Speech*

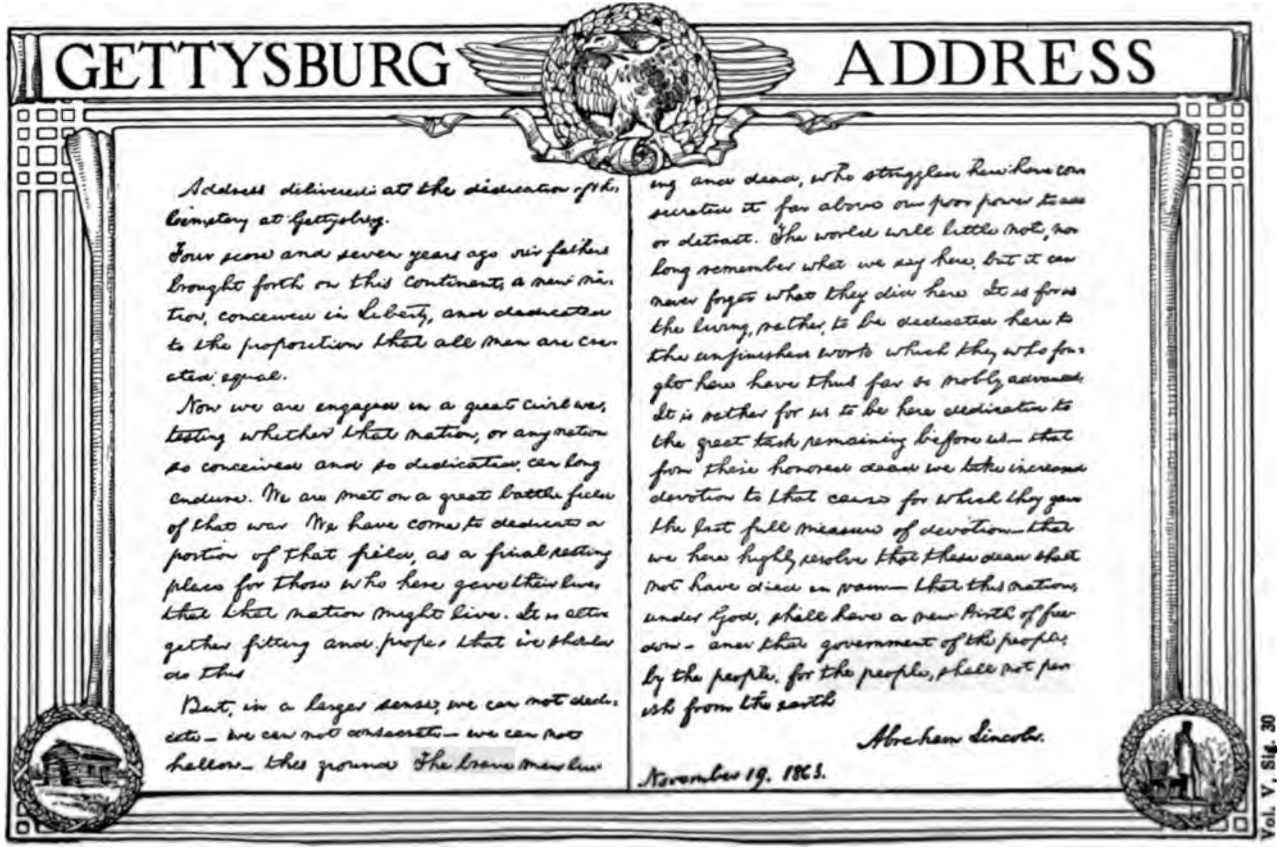
Before the recital of the speech the pupil should give the following explanation of the occasion for which it was composed: (See accompanying facsimile in Lincoln's handwriting.)

After the awful Battle of Gettysburg, in which thousands of men fell, this battlefield was dedicated as a national cemetery. The President was asked to make the dedicatory speech. Edward Everett gave the first address on that occasion, and he spoke long and eloquently. As the people listened, watching the President rolling and unrolling a little slip of paper which he held, they wondered if he could equal Mr. Everett. When the President rose, he read from that little slip of paper a very short address, but it was so full of meaning and the thoughts were so simply and beautifully expressed that it touched the hearts of all who heard it and of all who read it afterwards. Today the Everett speech is forgotten while Lincoln's stands as one of the greatest masterpieces of English prose.

Anecdotes of Lincoln, told by several of the pupils in succession

I

When Lincoln was a boy he read all the books he could lay hands on. Hearing that there was a Life of Washington in the neighborhood, he went in pursuit of it and joyfully carried it home in the bosom of his hunting shirt. Reading this by the light of a "tallow-dip," or home-made candle, until the feeble thing had burned down to its end, Abraham tucked the precious volume into a chink in the log wall of the cabin and went to sleep. A driving storm came up in the night and the book was



GETTYSBURG ADDRESS

Address delivered at the dedication of the Cemetery at Gettysburg.

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we can not dedicate — we can not consecrate — we can not hallow — this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us — that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion — that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain — that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom — and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

Abraham Lincoln.

November 19. 1863.

soaked through and ruined when the eager boy sought for it in the early morning light. Here was a great misfortune! It was a borrowed book, and honest Abe was in despair over its destruction in his hands. With a heavy heart he took it back to its owner. Mr. Crawford, who had lent it, looked at Abraham with an assumed severity, and asked him what he proposed to do about it. The lad offered to do anything that Mr. Crawford thought fair and just. A settlement was made, young Abe promising to pull fodder or corn-stalks for three days, by way of settlement.

"And does that pay for the book, or for the damage done to it?" asked the shrewd boy, taking his first lessons in worldly wisdom. "Wal, I allow," said the kindly owner of the precious book, "that it won't be much account to me or anybody else now, and the bargain is that you pull fodder for three days, and the book is yours." This was the first book that Abraham Lincoln ever earned and paid for.

II

When Lincoln was practicing law a woman came to him in great trouble. Her son, William Armstrong, had been arrested for murder. Lincoln knew nothing of the case, but he undertook it, and, after looking into the facts, became assured that the lad was innocent. It appeared that young Armstrong in company with some of his mates, had visited a camp-meeting and had become involved in a quarrel. The difficulty was prolonged into the night, and, in the course of the fracas, a mortal blow was dealt to a young man on the opposite side of the dispute, whatever it was. The evidence against the prisoner was substantial, and one witness swore that he saw the prisoner inflict the fatal blow with a slung-shot, by the light of the moon, which was shining brightly. Lincoln surprised everybody by his handling of the case, and when he came to the evidence of the man who had made an oath that he beheld the blow delivered by the light of the brightly shining moon, he called for an almanac and showed that on the night in question there had been no moon at all. The climax was reached and the jury brought in a verdict of "not guilty." Edward Eggleston has used this story in his novel *The Graysons*.

III

During the war an attempt was made to bring about peace by means of a conference between commissioners of the Confederacy, and the President and Secretary of State Seward. Though Lincoln attended the conference he refused to recognize the commissioners as official personages. He would not admit the separate independence of any states that were a part of the American Republic. One of the commissioners insisted that the recognition of Jefferson Davis' power to make treaties was the first step toward peace, and he cited the correspondence between King Charles I of England and his Parliament as a precedent. To this Lincoln replied: "Upon questions of history I must refer you to Mr. Seward, for he is posted in such things, and I don't pretend to be bright. My only distinct recollection of the matter is that Charles lost his head." That settled the commissioner.

IV

On one occasion Lincoln's little son Tad, who had been playfully commissioned lieutenant in the United States army by Secretary Stanton, procured several muskets and drilled the men-servants of the house in the manual of arms without attracting the attention of his father. And one night, to their consternation, he put them on duty and relieved the regular sentries, who, seeing the lad in full uniform, gladly went to their quarters. Robert Lincoln, hearing of this extraordinary performance, indignantly went to his father to remonstrate against the servants being compelled to do special duty when their day's work was done. Tad insisted on his rights as an officer. The President laughed and declined to interfere, but when the lad had lost his little authority in boyish sleep, the Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States went down and personally discharged the sentries his son had put on post.

Reading . . . . *Letter to Mrs. Bixby*

(Abraham Lincoln's letter to Mrs. Bixby of Boston who lost five sons in the Civil War will ever be a model of exquisite tenderness and sweet sympathy. It has been framed and hung in Oxford University as a specimen of the purest English and most elegant diction extant.)

Executive Mansion,
Washington, Nov. 21, 1864.

To Mrs. Bixby, Boston, Mass.
Dear Madam:

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours sincerely and respectfully,
A. Lincoln.

Song . . . . *America*

Reading . . . . *Abraham Lincoln*

(An extract from *The Commemoration Ode* written in memory of the Harvard University men who lost their lives in the Civil War.)

Nature, they say, doth dote,
And cannot make a man
Save on some worn-out plan,
Repeating us by rote:

For him her Old-World moulds aside she threw,
And choosing sweet clay from the breast
Of the unexhausted West,
With stuff untainted shaped a hero new,
Wise, steadfast in the strength of God, and true.

How beautiful to see
Once more a shepherd of mankind indeed,
Who loved his charge, but never loved to lead;
One whose meek flock the people joyed to be,
Not lured by any cheat of birth,
But by his clear-grained human worth,
And brave old wisdom of sincerity!
They knew that outward grace is dust;
They could not choose but trust
In that sure-footed mind's unfaltering skill,
And supple-tempered will
That bent like perfect steel to spring again and thrust.
His was no lonely mountain-peak of mind,
Thrusting to thin air o'er our cloudy bars,
A sea-mark now, now lost in vapor's blind;
Broad prairie rather, genial, level-lined,
Fruitful and friendly for all human kind,
Yet also nigh to heaven and loved of loftiest stars.
Nothing of Europe here,
Or, then, of Europe fronting mornward still,
Ere any names of Serf and Peer
Could Nature's equal scheme deface
And thwart her genial will;
Here was a type of the true elder race,
And one of Plutarch's men talked with us face to face.

I praise him not; it were too late;
And some innative weakness there must be
In him who condescends to victory
Such as the Present gives, and cannot wait,
Safe in himself as in a fate.
So always firmly he:
He knew to bide his time,
And can his fame abide,
Still patient in his simple faith sublime,
Till the wise years decide.
Great captains, with their guns and drums,
Disturb our judgment for the hour,
But at last silence comes;
These all are gone, and, standing like a tower,
Our children shall behold his fame,
The kindly-earnest, brave, foreseeing man,
Sagacious, patient, dreading praise, not blame,
New birth of our new soil, the first American.
— James Russell Lowell.

Reading . . . . *A Picture of Lincoln*

Let me endeavor to give those who never saw Mr. Lincoln some idea of his personal appearance. He was a very tall man — six feet four inches. His complexion was dark, his eyes and hair black; and though he was of lean, spare habit, I should suppose he must have weighed about 180 pounds. He was a man of fine fiber, and thus a brain of superior power was contained in a small, but rather elongated, skull. . . . His movements were rather angular, but never awkward; and he was never burdened with that frequent curse of unfortunate genius, the dreadful oppression of petty self-consciousness. It was a most remarkable character, that of Abraham Lincoln. He had the most comprehensive, the most judicial mind; he was the least faulty in his conclusions of any man that I have ever known. — Charles A. Dana.

Reading . *How One of Our National Hymns Came to Be*

In December, 1861, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe with her husband and some friends visited Washington. All about the city soldiers were encamped, preparing for the war. At night far and near could be seen the glow of their camp fires and dusky figures hurrying to and fro. Strains of *John Brown's Body* were frequently heard as the men marched or sat about their fires. Mr. and Mrs. Howe reached the city at night and the rooms they occupied overlooked the soldiers' camps. The sight was so thrilling and the music so impressive that Mrs. Howe was greatly moved. One night after she had gone to bed a soul-stirring song came to her. She rose and wrote *The Battle Hymn of the Republic*. She sent it to the *Atlantic Monthly*, of which Mr. James T. Fields was editor. He gave it the title which it bears and published it. Less than a year afterwards, prisoners in a Southern prison sang this famous hymn.

Song . . . . . . *The Battle Hymn of the Republic*

Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord:
He is trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are stored;
He hath loosed the fateful lightning of His terrible swift sword:
His truth is marching on.

Chorus:
Glory, glory hallelujah, etc.

I have seen Him in the watch-fires of a hundred circling camps;
They have builded Him an altar in the evening dews and damps;
I can read His righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps.
His day is marching on.

I have read a fiery gospel, writ in burnished rows of steel;
"As ye deal with My contemners, so with you My grace shall deal;
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with His heel,
Since God is Marching on."

He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before His judgment-seat:
Oh! be swift, my soul, to answer Him! be jubilant, my feet!
Our God is marching on.

In the beauty of the lilies Christ was born across the sea,
With a glory in His bosom that transfigures you and me:
As he died to make men holy, let us die to make men free,
While God is marching on.

— Julia Ward Howe.

Recitation . . . . *My Captain*

(Written upon the death of Lincoln.)

O, captain! my captain! our fearful trip is done;
The ship has weathered every rack; the prize we sought is won;
The port is near, the bells I hear, the people all exulting,
While follow eyes the steady keel, the vessel, grim and daring.

But O, heart! heart! heart!
O, the bleeding drops of red,
Where on the deck my captain lies,
Fallen, cold and dead.

O, captain! my captain! rise up and hear the bells!
Rise up — for you the flag is flung — for you the bugle trills,
For you, bouquets and ribbon'd wreaths — for you the shores a-crowding,
For you they call, the swaying mass, their eager faces turning;

Here, captain! dear father!
This arm beneath your head;
It is some dream, that on the deck,
You've fallen, cold and dead.

My captain does not answer; his lips are pale and still;
My father does not feel my arm; he has no pulse nor will;
But the ship is anchored, safe and sound, its voyage closed and done;
From fearful trip the victor ship comes in with objects won.

Exult, O shore, and ring, O bells!
But I, with mournful tread,
Walk the deck my captain lies,
Fallen, cold and dead. — Walt Whitman.

Song . . . . *America*

Recitation . . . . . *The Shepherd of His People*

(By the school in concert.)

The shepherd of the people! that old name that the best rulers ever craved. What ruler ever won it like this dead President of ours? He fed us with counsel when we were in doubt, with inspiration when we faltered, with caution when we would be rash, with calm, trustful cheerfulness through many an hour when our hearts were dark. He fed hungry souls all over the country with sympathy and consolation. He spread before the whole land feasts of great duty, devotion and patriotism, on which the land grew strong. He taught us the sacredness of government, the wickedness of treason. He made our souls glad and vigorous with the love of liberty that was his. — Phillips Brooks

SUGGESTIONS

Every school should have a good portrait of Lincoln on the occasion of the celebration of his birthday. This portrait should occupy a prominent place in the front of the room and should be tastefully decorated with flags or bunting. Pictures of his early home, of his home at Springfield, Ill., of the great Lincoln monuments in Springfield and in Washington, and of the Lincoln Memorial at Hodgenville, Ky., if they can be obtained, will lend interest to the program. The most celebrated statue of Lincoln is that by Saint Gaudens, in Lincoln Park, Chicago. Good photographs of this can be procured at slight expense and it forms a beautiful decoration for any schoolroom. Decorate the room with flags and bunting.

Mount Vernon

WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY

Feb. 22

Washington

Soldier and statesman, rarest unison;
High-poised example of great duties done
Simply as breathing, a world's honors worn
As life's indifferent gifts to all men born;
Dumb for himself, unless it were to God,
But for his barefoot soldiers eloquent,
Tramping the snow to coral where they trod,
Held by his awe in hollow-eyed content;
Modest, yet firm as Nature's self; unblamed
Save by men his nobler temper shamed;
Never seduced through show of present good
By other than unsetting lights to steer
New trimmed in Heaven, nor than his steadfast mood
More steadfast, far from rashness as from fear;
Rigid, but with himself first, grasping still
In swerveless poise the wave-beat helm of will;
Nor honored then or now because he wooed
The popular voice, but that he still withstood;
Broadminded, higher-souled, there is but one
Who was all this and ours, and all men's,—
Washington.

— James Russell Lowell.

Opening Song . . . . *Flag of the Free*

Recitation . . *The Birthday of Washington Ever Honored*

Welcome, thou festal morn!
Never be passed in scorn
Thy rising sun,
Thou day forever bright
With Freedom's holy light,
That gave the world the sight
Of Washington.

Unshaken 'mid the storm,
Behold that noble form,—
That peerless one,—
With his protecting hand,
Like Freedom's angel stand,
The guardian of our land,
Our Washington.

Traced there in lines of light,
Where all pure rays unite,
Obscured by none;
Brightest on history's page,
Of any clime or age,
As chieftain, man, and sage,
Stands Washington.

Name at which tyrants pale,
And their proud legions quail,
Their boasting done;
While Freedom lifts her head,
No longer filled with dread,
Her sons to victory led
By Washington.

Now the true patriot see,
The foremost of the free,
The victory won;
In Freedom's presence bow,
While sweetly smiling now
She wreathes the spotless brow
Of Washington.

Then, with each coming year,
Whenever shall appear
That natal sun,
Will we attest the worth
Of one true man to earth,
And celebrate the birth
Of Washington.
— George Howland.

Washington

(An exercise for five pupils. Let each pupil recite one stanza.)

Land of the West! the passing brief,
the record of thine age,
Thou hast a name that darkens all
on history's wide page!
Let all the blasts of Fame ring out,—
Thine shall be loudest far;
Let others boast their satellites —
Thou hast the planet star.
Thou hast a name whose characters
of light shall ne'er depart;
'Tis stamped upon the dullest brain,
and warms the coldest heart;
A war-cry fit for any land where
freedom's to be won;
Land of the West! it stands alone,—
It is thy Washington!

Rome had its Caesar great and brave,
but stain was on his wreath;
He lived, the heartless conqueror,
and died the tyrant's death.
France had its eagle, but his wings,
tho lofty they might soar,
Were spread in false ambition's flight,
and dipped in murder's gore.
Those hero-gods, whose mighty sway
would fain have chained the waves —
Who flashed their blades with tiger zeal
to make a world of slaves —
Who, tho their kindred barred the path,
Still fiercely waded on.
Oh, where shall be their "glory"
beside that of Washington!

He fought, but not with love of strife,
he struck but to defend;
And ere he turned a people's foe,
he sought to be a friend;
He strove to keep his country's right
by reason's gentle word,
And sighed when full injustice threw
the challenge sword to sword.
He stood the firm, the wise, the patriot
and the sage;
He showed no deep avenging hate;
no despot's rage;
He stood for Liberty and Truth, and
daringly led on
Till shouts of victory gave forth
the name of Washington.

No car of triumph bore him through
a city filled with grief;
No groaning captives at the wheels
proclaimed him victor-chief;
He broke the gyves of slavery with
strong and high disdain,
But cast no scepter from the links
when he had rent the chains.
He saved his land, but did not lay
his soldier trappings down
To change them for a regal vest
and don a kingly crown.
Fame was too earnest in her joy,
too proud of such a son
To let a robe and title mask
her noble Washington.

England, my heart is truly thine,
my loved, my native earth,—
The land that holds a mother's grave
and gave that mother birth!
Oh, keenly sad would be the fate
that thrust me from thy shore,
And faltering my breath that sighed,
"Farewell for evermore!"
But did I meet such adverse lot,
I would not seek to dwell

Where olden heroes wrought the deeds
for Homer's song to tell.
"Away, thou gallant ship," I'd cry,
"and bear me safely on,
But bear me from my own fair land
to that of Washington."
— Eliza Cook.

Drill

(For boys with hatchets or flags.)

Song . . . . *Columbia, The Gem of The Ocean*

Sayings of Washington

(One to a pupil.)

The name "American" must always exalt the just pride of patriotism.

Let us impart all blessings we possess, or ask for ourselves, to the whole family of mankind.

Let us erect a standard to which the good and the honest may repair.

Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire, conscience.

I never say anything of a man that I have the slightest scruple of saying to him.

To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of peace.

Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to consecrate your affections.

From the gallantry and fortitude of her citizens, under the auspices of Heaven, America has derived her independence.

The ever favorite object of my heart is the benign influence of good laws under a free government

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all; religion and morality enjoin this conduct. Can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence.

George Washington

This was the man God gave us when the hour
Proclaimed the dawn of Liberty begun;
Who dared a deed, and died when it was done;
Patient in triumph, temperate in power,—
Not striving like the Corsican to tower
To Heaven, nor like great Philip's greater son,
To win the world and weep for worlds unwon,
Or lose the star to revel in the flower.
The lives that serve the eternal verities
Alone do mold mankind. Pleasure and pride
Sparkle a while and perish, as the spray,
Smoking across the crests of cavernous seas
Is impotent to hasten or delay
The everlasting surges of the tide.

— John H. Ingham.

Recitation . . *Washington's Name in the Hall of Fam*

Republics are ungrateful, but ours,
its best beloved son,
Still keeps in memory green, and
wreathes the name of Washington.
As year by year returns the day
that saw the patriot's birth,
With boom of gun and beat of drum
and peals of joy and mirth,
And songs of children in the streets,
and march of men-at-arms,
We honor pay to him who stood serene
'mid war's alarms;
And with his ragged volunteers long
kept the foes at bay,
And bore the flag to victory in
many a battle's day.

We were a little nation then;
so mighty have we grown
That scarce would Washington believe
today we were his own.
With ships that sail on every sea,
and sons in every port,
And harvest-fields to feed the world,
wherever food is short,

And if at council board our chiefs
are now discreet and wise,
And if to great estate and high,
our farmer's lads may rise,
We owe a debt to him who set
the fashion of our fame,
And nevermore may we forget
our loftiest hero's name.

Great knightly soul who came in time
to serve his country's need,
To serve her with timely word and
with the valiant deed,
Along the ages brightening as
endless cycles run
Undimmed and gaining luster in the
twentieth century's sun,
First in the Hall of Fame we write
the name all folk may ken,
As first in war, first in peace,
first with his countrymen.

— Margaret E. Sangster.

Essay . . . . *A Visit to Mount Vernon*

Reading . . . . *Tribute to Washington*

"Greater soldiers, more intellectual statesmen, and profounder sages have doubtless existed in the history of the English race, perhaps in our own country, but not one who to great excellence in the threefold composition of man, the physical, intellectual, and moral, has added such exalted integrity, such unaffected piety, such unsullied purity of soul, and such wondrous control of his own spirit. He illustrated and adorned the civilization of Christianity, and furnished an example of the wisdom and perfection of its teachings which the subtlest arguments of its enemies cannot impeach. That one grand, rounded life, full-orbed with intellectual and moral glory, is worth, as the product of Christianity, more than all the dogmas of all the teachers. The youth of America who aspire to promote their own and their country's welfare should never cease to gaze upon his great example, or to remember that the brightest gems in the crown of his immortality, the qualities which uphold his fame on earth and plead for him in heaven, were those which characterized him as the patient, brave, Christian gentleman. In this respect he was a blessing to the whole human race no less than to his own countrymen, to the many millions who annually celebrate the day of his birth."

Recitation . . . . . . *Crown Our Washington*

Arise! 'tis the day of our Washington's glory,
The garlands uplift for our liberties won.
Oh sing in your gladness his echoing story,
Whose sword swept for freedom the fields of the sun!
Not with gold, nor with gems,
But with evergreens vernal,
And the banners of stars that the continent span
Crown, crown we the chief of the heroes eternal,
Who lifted his sword for the birthright of man!

He gave us a nation to make it immortal,
He laid down for freedom the sword that he drew,
And his faith leads us on through the uplifting portal,
Of the glories of peace and our destinies new.
Not with gold, nor with gems,
But with evergreens vernal,
And the flags that the nations of liberty span,
Crown, crown him the chief of the heroes eternal,
Who laid down his sword for the birthright of man!

Lead, Face of the Future, serene in thy beauty,
Till o'er the dead heroes the peace star shall gleam,
Till Right shall be Might in the counsels of duty,
And the service of man be life's glory supreme.
Not with gold, nor with gems,
But with evergreens vernal,
And the flags that the nations in brotherhood span,
Crown, crown we the chief of the heroes eternal,
Whose honor was gained by his service to man!

O Spirit of Liberty, sweet are thy numbers!
The winds to thy banners their tribute shall bring,
While rolls the Potomac where Washington slumbers,
And his natal day comes with the angels of spring.
We follow thy counsels,
O hero eternal!
To highest achievement the school leads the van,
And, crowning thy brow with the evergreens vernal,
We pledge thee our all to the service of man!
— Hezekiah Butterworth.

Song . . . . *Mount Vernon Bells*

Reading . . . . . *Ode for Washington's Birthday*

Welcome to the day returning,
Dearer still as ages flow,
While the torch of Faith is burning,
Long as Freedom's altars glow!
See the hero whom it gave us
Slumbering on a mother's breast;
For the arm he stretched to save us,
Be its morn forever blest!

Hear the tale of youthful glory,
While of Britain's rescued band
Friend and foe repeat the story,
Spread his fame o'er sea and land,
Where the red cross, proudly streaming,
Flaps above the frigate's deck,
Where the golden lilies, gleaming,
Star of the watch-towers of Quebec.

Look! The shadow on the dial
Marks the hour of deadlier strife;
Days of terror, years of trial,
Scourge a nation into life.
Lo, the youth, become her leader!
All her baffled tyrants yield;
Through his arm the Lord hath freed her;
Crown him on the tented field!

Vain is Empire's mad temptation!
Not for him an earthly crown!
He whose sword hath freed a nation
Strikes the offered sceptre down.
See the throneless Conqueror seated,
Ruler by a people's choice;
See the Patriot's task completed;
Hear the Father's dying voice!

"By the name that you inherit,
By the sufferings you recall,
Cherish the fraternal spirit;
Love your country first of all!
Listen not to idle questions
If its bands may be untied;
Doubt the patriot whose suggestions
Strive a nation to divide!"

Father! We, whose ears have tingled
With the discord-notes of shame,—
We, whose sires their blood have mingled
In the battle's thunder-flame,—
Gathering, while this holy morning
Lights the land from sea to sea,
Hear thy counsel, heed thy warning;
Trust us, while we honor thee!

— Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Tributes to Washington

(The following tribute to Washington was found on the back of the frame of one of his miniature portraits at Mount Vernon.)

"Washington, the defender of his country, the founder of liberty, the friend of man. History and tradition are explored in vain for a parallel to his character. In the annals of modern greatness he stands alone, and the noblest names of antiquity lose their luster in his presence. Born the benefactor of mankind, he united all the qualities necessary to an illustrious career. Nature made him great; he made himself virtuous. Called by his country to the defense of her liberties, he triumphantly vindicated the rights of humanity, and on the pillars of national independence laid the foundations of a great republic. Twice invested with the supreme magistracy by the unanimous voice of a free people, he surpassed in the Cabinet the glories of the field, and voluntarily resigning the scepter and the sword, retired to the shades of private life. A spectacle so new and so sublime was contemplated with the profoundest admiration, and the name of Washington, adding new luster to humanity, resounded to the remotest regions of the earth. Magnanimous in youth, glorious through life, great in death, his highest ambition the happiness of mankind, his noblest victory the conquest of himself, bequeathing to posterity the inheritance of his fame and building his monument in the hearts of his countrymen, he lived, the ornament of the eighteenth century, and died, regretted by a mourning world." — Carrington, *The Patriotic Reader.*

There was in the breast of Washington one sentiment so deeply felt, so constantly uppermost, that no proper occasion escaped without its utterance. He regarded the union of these States less as one of blessing, than as the great treasure-house which contained them all. Here, in his judgment, was the great magazine of all our means of prosperity, and here are deposited all our solid hopes for future greatness.

— Daniel Webster.

As a general, he marshalled the peasant into a veteran and supplied by discipline the absence of experience. As a statesman, he enlarged the policy of the Cabinet into the most comprehensive system of general advantage; and such was the wisdom of his views and the philosophy of his counsels that to the soldier and the statesman he almost added the character of the sage.

A conqueror, he was untainted with the crime of blood; a revolutionist, he was free from any stain of treason; for aggression commenced the contest, and a country called him to the command; liberty unsheathed his sword, necessity stained, victory returned it. If he had paused here, history might doubt what station to assign him, whether at the head of her citizens or her soldiers, her heroes or her patriots. But the last glorious act crowned his career and banished hesitation. Who, like Washington, after having freed a country, resigned her crown, and retired to a cottage rather than reign in a capitol!

Immortal man! He took from the battle its crime, and from the conquest its chains; he left the victorious the glory of his self-denial, and turned upon the vanquished only the retribution of his mercy. Happy, proud America! The lightnings of heaven yielded to your philosophy! The temptations of earth could not seduce your patriotism!

— Charles Phillips.

Estimates of Washington

More than all, and above all, Washington was master of himself. If there be one quality more than another in his character which may exercise a useful control over the men of the present hour, it is the total disregard of self when in the most elevated positions for influence and example.

— Charles Francis Adams.

Let him who looks for a monument of Washington look around the United States. Your freedom, your independence, your national power, your prosperity and your prodigious growth are a monument to him. — Kossuth.

To add brightness to the sun or glory to the name of Washington is alike impossible. Let none attempt it. In solemn awe pronounce the name, and in its naked, deathless splendor leave it shining on. — Abraham Lincoln.

These tributes and estimates should be distributed among the pupils, to be learned and recited. Let them be given at appropriate intervals during the program.

Song . . . . *America*

Let the program conclude with a series of tableaux representing scenes in the life of Washington.

SUGGESTIONS

Every school is supposed to have a large picture of Washington. This should be placed in the front of the room and be draped with a flag or with bunting. Pictures of Mount Vernon, Washington's Tomb and the great Washington Monument will also be interesting. Have one pupil draw the Washington coat-of-arms on the blackboard, and another a picture of the first American flag with the thirteen stars in a circle. Decorate the room with flags and bunting.

INDIAN DAY

INDIAN NAMES

Ye say they all have passed away,
  That noble race and brave,
That their light canoes have vanished,
  From off the crested wave.
That mid the forests where they roamed
  There sings no hunter's shout,
But their name on your waters,
  Ye may not wash it out.

Ye say their cone-like cabins
  That clustered o'er the vale
Have fled away like withered leaves
  Before the Autumn gale.
But their memory liveth on your hills
  Their baptism on your shore;
Your everlasting rivers speak
  Their dialect of yore.
— Lydia H. Sigourn

Opening Song . . . *Indian*
(Vol. III, page 380)

Reading . . . . *Description of the Indians*

The American Indians are often classed as a single type. They are described as being of a coppery or reddish-brown color. They have abundant, long, straight black hair, and each hair is found to be almost circular when cut across. They have high cheekbones, unusually prominent, and wide faces. This description will perhaps fit most Indians pretty well, but it would be a great mistake to think that there are no differences between tribes; there are many. There are tribes of tall Indians and tribes of short ones; some that are almost white and some that are nearly black. There are found among them all shades of brown, some of which are reddish, others yellowish. There are tribes where the eyes appear as oblique or slanting as in the Chinese, and others where they are as straight as among ourselves. Some tribes have heads that are long and narrow; the heads of others are relatively short and wide.

— Starr in *American Indians.*

Reading . . . . *The Indians of Today*

There are now about 300,000 Indians in the United States. They have lands equal in territory to Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Kentucky, and Virginia, and worth about $600,000,000. Some Indians are very wealthy, the Osages especially, with an average of $9,579.85; probably they have the highest per capita holding of any people in the world. Others are less well off, and many are extremely poor. The great fight is to keep the Indians' property intact until they assume the burden of full independence.

There are one hundred Indian reservations in the United States. These reservations are large tracts of land set apart for various tribes. The lands are under control of the United States government, and the Indians residing upon them are under government protection. Most of the reservations are in the states west of the Mississippi River. The largest reservation is that of the Navajos, in Arizona, which has an area of 9,000,000 acres. Many Indians have been educated in government schools and have adopted the dress and customs of civilization. They have become successful farmers, mechanics, carpenters and tradesmen. The largest number of civilized Indians is found in Oklahoma, which was formerly Indian Territory.

Reading . . . . . *An Indian Boy's Training*

It is commonly supposed that there is no systematic education of their children among the aborigines of this country. Nothing could be further from the truth. All the customs of this primitive people were held to be divinely instituted, and those in connection with the training of children were scrupulously adhered to and transmitted from one generation to another.

Scarcely was the embryo warrior ushered into the world, when he was met by lullabies that speak of wonderful exploits in hunting and war. Those ideas which so fully occupied his mother's mind before his birth are now put into words by all about the child, who is as yet quite unresponsive to their appeals to his honor and ambition. He is called the future defender of his people, whose lives may depend upon courage and skill. If the child is a girl she is at once addressed as the future mother of a noble race.

In hunting songs, the leading animals are introduced; they come to the boy to offer their bodies for the sustenance of his tribe. The animals are regarded as his friends, and spoken of almost as tribes of people, or as his cousins, grandfathers and grandmothers. The songs of wooing, adapted as lullabies, were equally imaginative, and the suitors were often animals personified, while pretty maidens were represented by the Mink and the Doe.

Very early, the Indian boy assumed the task of preserving and transmitting the legends of his ancestors and his race. Almost every evening a myth, or a true story of some deed done in the past, was narrated by one of the parents or grandparents, while the boy listened with parted lips and glistening eyes. On the following evening he was usually required to repeat it. If he was not an apt scholar he struggled along with his task; but, as a rule, the Indian boy is a good listener and has a good memory, so that the stories are tolerably well mastered. The household became his audience, by which he was alternately criticized and applauded.

— Eastman (Obiyesa) in *Indian Boyhood*.

Recitation . *The Indian's Welcome to the Pilgrim Fathers*

Above them spread a stranger sky;
Around, the sterile plain;
The rock-bound coast rose frowning nigh;
Beyond,— the wrathful main:
Chill remnants of the wintry snow
Still choked the encumbered soil,
Yet forth those Pilgrim Fathers go
To mark their future toil.

'Mid yonder vale their corn must rise
In summer's ripening pride,
And there the church spire woo the skies
Its sister-school beside.
Perchance 'mid England's velvet green
Some tender thought reposed,
Though naught upon their stoic mien
Such soft regret disclosed.

When sudden from the forest wide
A red-browed chieftain came,
With towering form, and haughty stride,
And eye like kindling flame:
No wrath he breathed, no conflict sought;
To no dark ambush drew,
But simply to the Old World brought
The welcome of the New.

That welcome was a blast and ban
Upon thy race unborn;
Was there no seer,— thou fated Man!—
Thy lavish zeal to warn?

Thou in thy fearless faith didst hail
    A weak, invading band,
But who shall heed thy children's wail
    Swept from their native land?

Thou gav'st the riches of thy streams,
    The lordship o'er thy waves,
The region of thine infant dreams
    And of thy fathers' graves,—
But who to yon proud mansions, piled
    With wealth of earth and sea,
Poor outcast from thy forest wild,
    Say, who shall welcome thee?
        — Lydia Huntley Sigourney.

Recitation . . . . *Pocahontas*

Wearied arm and broken sword
    Wage in vain the desperate fight;
Round him press a countless horde,
    He is but a single knight.
Hark! a cry of triumph shrill
    Through the wilderness resounds,
    As, with twenty bleeding wounds,
Sinks the warrior, fighting still.

Now they heap the funeral pyre,
    And the torch of death they light;
Ah! 'tis hard to die by fire!
    Who will shield the captive knight?
Round the stake with fiendish cry
    Wheel and dance the savage crowd,
    Cold the victim's mien and proud,
And his breast is bared to die.

Who will shield the fearless heart?
    Who avert the murderous blade?
From the throng with sudden start
    See, there springs an Indian maid.
Quick she stands before the knight:
   "Loose the chain, unbind the ring!
    I am daughter of the king,
And I claim the Indian right!"

Dauntlessly aside she flings
  Lifted axe and thirsty knife,
Fondly to his heart she clings,
  And her bosom guards his life!
In the woods of Powhattan,
  Still 'tis told by Indian fires
  How a daughter of their sires
Saved a captive Englishman.
— William Makepeace Thackeray.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Reading . . . . *Indian Houses*

The houses of Indians vary greatly. In some tribes they are large and intended for several families; in others they are small, and occupied by few persons. Some are admirably constructed like the great Pueblo houses of the Southwest, made of stone and adobe mud; others are frail structures of brush and thatch. The material naturally varies with the district.

An interesting house was the "long house" of the Iroquois. From fifty to one hundred or more feet in length and perhaps not more than fifteen in width, it was of a long rectangular form. It consisted of a light framework of poles tied together, which was covered with long strips of bark or pegged on. There was no window, but there was a doorway at each end. Blankets or skins hung at these served as doors. Through the house from doorway to doorway ran a central passage; the space on either side of this was divided by partitions of skins into a series of stalls, each of which was occupied by a family. In the central passage was a series of fireplaces or hearths, each one of which served for four families. A large house of this kind might have five or even more hearths, and would be occupied by twenty or more families. Indian houses contained but little furniture. Some blankets or skins served as a bed; there were no tables or chairs; there were no stoves, as all cooking was done over the open fire or fireplace.

The eastern Algonquins built houses like those of the Iroquois, but usually much smaller. They, too, were made of a light framework of poles over which were hung sheets of rush matting which could be easily removed and rolled up, for future use in case of removal. There are pictures in old books of some Algonquin villages.

These villages were often inclosed by a line of palisades to keep off enemies. Sometimes the gardens and cornfields were inside this palisading, sometimes outside. The houses in these pictures usually have straight, vertical sides and queer rounded roofs. Sometimes they were arranged along streets, but at others they were placed in a ring around a central open space, where games and celebrations took place.

Many tribes have two kinds of houses, one for summer, the other for winter. The Sacs and Foxes of Iowa, in summer, live in large, rectangular, barn-like structures. These measure perhaps twenty feet by thirty. They are bark-covered and have two doorways and a central passage, somewhat like the Iroquois house. But they are not divided by partitions into sections. On each side a platform about three feet high and six feet wide runs the full length of the house. Upon this the people sleep, simply spreading out their blankets when they wish to lie down. Each person has his proper place upon the platform, and no one thinks of trespassing upon another. At the back of the platform, against the wall, are boxes, baskets, and bundles containing the property of the different members of the household. As these platforms are rather high, they are reached by little ladders, fastened into the earth floor, the tops of which rest against the edge of the platform. These ladders are simply logs of wood, with notches cut in them for footholds.

The winter house is very different. In the summer house there is plenty of room and air; in the winter house space is precious. The framework of the winter lodge is made of light poles tied together with narrow strips of bark. It is an oblong, dome-shaped affair about twenty feet long and ten wide. Some are nearly circular and about fifteen feet across. They are hardly six feet high. Over this framework are fastened sheets of matting made of cat-tail rushes.

This matting is very light and thin, but a layer or two of it keeps out a great deal of cold. There is one doorway, usually at the middle of the side. There are no platforms, but beds are made close to the ground, out of poles and branches. At the center is a fireplace over which hangs the pot in which food is boiled. — Starr, in *American Indians.*

Recitation . . . . *Indians*

Alas! for them, their day is o'er,
Their fires are out on hill and shore;
No more for them the wild deer bounds;
The plow is on their hunting grounds;
The pale man's axe rings through their woods,
The pale man's sail skims o'er their floods;
Their pleasant springs are dry;
Their children,— look, by power opprest,
Beyond the mountains of the west,
Their children go to die. — Charles Sprague.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Reading . *An Indian at the Burial-Place of His Fathers*

It is the spot I came to seek —
My father's ancient burial-place,
Ere from these vales, ashamed and weak,
Withdrew our wasted race.
It is the spot — I know it well —
Of which our old traditions tell.

For here the upland bank sends out
A ridge toward the river-side;
I know the shaggy hills about,
The meadows smooth and wide,
The plains, that, toward the southern sky
Fenced east and west by mountains lie.

A white man, gazing on the scene,
Would say a lovely spot was here,
And praise the lawns, so fresh and green,
Between the hills so sheer.
I like it not — I would the plain
Lay in its tall old groves again.

The sheep are on the slopes around,
        The cattle in the meadows feed,
And labourers turn the crumbling ground,
        Or drop the yellow seed,
And prancing steeds, in trappings gay,
Whirl the bright chariot o'er the way.

Methinks it were a nobler sight
        To see these vales in woods arrayed,
Their summits in the golden light,
        Their trunks in grateful shade,
And herds of deer, that bounding go
O'er rills and prostrate trees below.

And then to mark the lord of all,
        The forest hero trained to wars,
Quivered and plumed, and lithe and tall,
        And seamed with glorious scars,
Walk forth, amid his reign, to dare
The wolf, and grapple with the bear.

This bank, in which the dead were laid,
        Was sacred when its soil was ours;
Hither the artless Indian maid
        Brought wreaths of beads and flowers,
And the grey chief and gifted seer
Worshiped the god of thunders here.

But now the wheat is green and high
        On clods that hide the warrior's breast,
And scattered in the furrows lie
        The weapons of his rest,
And there, in the loose sand, is thrown
Of his large arm the mouldering bone.

Ah, little thought the strong and brave,
        Who bore the lifeless chieftain forth;
Or the young wife, that weeping gave
        Her first-born to the earth,
That the pale race, who waste us now,
Among their bones should guide the plough.

They waste us — ay — like April snow
In the warm noon, we shrink away;
And fast they follow, as we go
Towards the setting day —
Till they shall fill the land, and we
Are driven into the western sea.

But I behold a fearful sign,
To which the white men's eyes are blind;
Their race may vanish hence, like mine,
And leave no trace behind,
Save ruins o'er the region spread,
And the white stones above the dead.

Before these fields were shorn and tilled,
Full to the brim our rivers flowed;
The melody of waters filled
The fresh and boundless wood;
And torrents dashed, and rivulets played,
And fountains spouted in the shade.

Those grateful sounds are heard no more,
The springs are silent in the sun,
The rivers by the blackened shore,
With lessening current run;
The realm our tribes are crushed to get
May be a barren desert yet.
— William Cullen Bryant.

Reading . . . . *Life in the Woods*

Scarcely had the men disappeared in the woods each morning than all the boys sallied forth, apparently engrossed in their games and sports, but in reality competing actively with one another in quickness of observation. As the day advanced they all kept the sharpest possible lookout. Suddenly there would come the shrill "Woo-coo-hoo!" at the top of a boy's voice, announcing the bringing of a deer. Immediately all the other boys took up the cry, each bent on getting ahead of the rest. Now we all saw the brave Wacoota fairly bent over by his burden, a large deer which he carried on his shoulders. His fringed buckskin shirt was besprinkled with blood. He threw the deer at the door of his wife's mother's home, according to the custom, and then walked proudly to his own. At the door of his father's teepee he stood for a moment straight as a pine-tree and then entered.

When a bear was brought in, a hundred or more of these urchins were wont to make the woods resound with voices: "Wah! wah! wah! Wah! wah! wah! the brave White Rabbit brings a bear! Wah! wah! wah!"

All day these sing-song cheers were kept up, as the game was brought in. At last, toward the close of the afternoon, all the hunters had returned, and happiness and contentment reigned absolute, in a fashion which I have never observed among the white people, even in the best of circumstances. The men were lounging and smoking; the women actively engaged in the preparation of the evening meal and the care of the meat. The choicest of the game was cooked and offered to the Great Mystery, with all the accompanying ceremonies. This was called the "medicine feast." Even the women, as they lowered the boiling pot, or the fragrant roast of venison ready to serve, would first whisper; "Great Mystery, do thou partake of this venison and still be gracious!" This was the commonly said "grace." — Eastman, in *Indian Boyhood.*

Reading . . . . *Indian Schools*

The United States maintains about 320 schools especially for the education of Indian children and youth. Of these 73 are on reservations; 35 are not on reservations, and 208 are day schools. The total enrollment in these schools is about 28,000. The courses of study are similar to those in the public schools in the state where the Indian schools are located, except that more attention is paid to industrial work. In the more advanced institutions, such as Hampton, Carlyle and Haskell, the boys are taught various trades and the girls are given thorough courses in cooking, sewing and domestic economy. In all the schools agriculture is taught and every encouragement is given young men who own land, to become scientific agriculturists. The aim of the schools in all cases is to make the young men and women self-supporting on completion of their course of study.

Recitation . . . . . *Indian Rivers in the South*

Yes, though they all have passed away, —
That noble race, and brave,—
Though their light canoes have vanished
From off the crested wave,
Though 'mid the forests where they roved
There rings no hunter's shout,
Yet their names are on our waters,
And we may not wash them out.

Their memory liveth on our hills,
Their baptism on our shore,
Our everlasting rivers speak
Their dialect of yore.
'Tis heard where Chattahoochee pours
His yellow tide along;
It sounds on Tallapoosa's shores,
And Coosa swells the song.

Where lordly Alabama sweeps,
The symphony remains,
And young Catawba proudly keeps
The echo of its strains;
Where Tuscaloosa's waters glide,
From stream and town 'tis heard,
And dark Tombigbee's winding tide
Repeats the olden word.

Afar, where nature brightly wreathed
Fit Edens for the free,
Along Tuscumbia's bank 'tis breathed,
By stately Tennessee;
And, south, where from Conecuh's Springs
Escambia's waters steal,
The ancient melody still rings,
From Tensaw and Mobile.

— Alexander Beaufort Meek.

Drama . . . . Scenes from *Hiawatha*

SUGGESTIONS

Children are always interested in the Indians. Unfortunately they are more likely to learn about the undesirable traits of Indian character than about those traits which are highly commendable. The chief purpose of this program is to present some phases of Indian life and character for which the red men should be commended. In addition to the selections in the program, valuable and interesting information will be found in the Type Study, *Iroquois Indians*, page 207. (See also *Indian Life*, Vol. III, page 52.) If Indian relics and other material representing Indian life can be procured they can be used as a part of the decorations.

BIRD AND ARBOR DAY

Nest Eggs

Birds all the summer
Flutter and quarrel
Here in the arbor-like
Tent of the laurel.

Here in the fork
The brown nest is seated;
Four little blue eggs
The mother keeps heated.

While we stand watching her
Staring like gabies,
Safe in each egg are th
Bird's little babies.

Soon the frail eggs they shall
Chip, and up springing,
Make all the April woods,
Merry with singing.

Younger than we are,
O, Children! and frailer;
Soon in the blue air they'll be
Singer and sailor.

We, so much older,
Taller and stronger;
We shall look down on the
Birdies no longer.

They shall go flying,
With musical speeches,
High overhead in the
Tops of the beeches.

In spite of our wisdom
And sensible talking,
We on our feet must go,
Plodding and walking.
— Robert Louis Stevenson.

Opening Song . . . . *Arbor Day*
(From *Songs in Season*)

Recitation . . . . . *Woodman, Spare That Tree*

Woodman, spare that tree!
Touch not a single bough!
In youth it sheltered me,
And I'll protect it now.
'Twas my father's hand
That placed it near his cot;
There, woodman, let it stand,
Thy ax shall harm it not!

That old familiar tree,
Whose glory and renown
Are spread from sea to sea,
And wouldst thou hew it down?
Woodman, forbear thy stroke!
Cut not its earth-bound ties;
Oh, spare that aged oak
Now towering to the skies!

When but an idle boy,
I sought its grateful shade;

In all their gushing joy
Here too my sisters played.
My mother kissed me here;
My father pressed my hand:
Forgive this foolish tear,
But let the old oak stand.

My heartstrings round thee cling,
Close as thy bark, old friend!
Here shall the wild birds sing,
And still thy branches bend.
Old tree, the storm still brave!
And, woodman, leave the spot;
While I've a hand to save,
Thy ax shall harm it not.
—Morris.

Reading . . . . *Johnny Appleseed*

Toward the close of the Revolutionary War, many people started out to make their homes in the fertile lands of Ohio. Those from the East went by way of Pittsburgh, Pa., for here was a settlement of New England people who made the travelers welcome. Besides this there were boats to carry them across the river.

On a sunny hillside in Pittsburgh was a cozy little log cabin, with old-fashioned flowers about it and a wonderful orchard back of it. Here lived a young man named Jonathan Chapman, who was of Puritan descent. He loved birds, flowers, trees and his fellow men. He had learned to cultivate fruit trees and enjoyed nothing better than caring for his orchard.

To weary, homesick travelers who had been long weeks on a rough, wild road, Jonathan's cabin and orchard were like a glimpse of home, and instinctively they turned to it. He welcomed each family cordially and gave them freely of his possessions — good water, fresh milk, apples and, in season, apple blossoms. He invited them all to remain as long as they desired. It was always hard for the women and children, especially, to leave this comfortable, homelike place. Everybody wished he could have such an orchard as Johnny's in his new home. Often people asked to buy young trees, but Johnny knew they would not survive so long a journey, so he saved appleseeds each fall and gave a little bag of them to each one who desired them, explaining how to care for the young trees.

From time to time messages came to him from the people to whom he had given seeds, telling of their failure to make them grow, and of the sorrow and disappointment thus occasioned. The young man concluded that the wilderness needed someone who knew how to help make it blossom and bear good fruit. The more he thought of the joy he had given to others by offering them apples and apple blossoms, the more he felt that he must go west with these pioneers to assist in bringing comfort to them.

He finally sold his little home, and taking a horse, a gun, garden tools, sacks filled with appleseeds, and flint and steel for making fires, he started west. He found traveling hard, tiresome and lonely. One morning when Johnny went to get his horse he found the Indians had stolen it. While he was trying to fix a frame on which he could strap his bags, a traveler came along on horseback and offered to carry the bags to Zanesville for him. Thus relieved, Jonathan made his way on foot over the rough country. Traveling alone was dangerous, because of the many wild animals that prowled about at night, and because of the Indians, but Johnny was not afraid. One day, walking up along the valley of a little stream, Johnny came upon an Indian lying face down in the path. He turned the warrior over, found he was alive, but that he had been shot in the leg and was weak from loss of blood. Johnny hastily tore bandages from his clothing, washed and bound the wound, then dragged the Indian under the shade of a big tree. He washed his face with cool water and covered him with his blanket.

After a time the Indian regained consciousness, and towards evening others of the tribe came in search of him. When they learned that the white man had done so much for their comrade, they at once called him "Brother." They took Johnny to their camp, gave him food and lodging, and when he was ready to go on his way gave him a horse. Thus began Johnny's friendship with the Indians, which lasted throughout his life.

Jonathan finally reached Zanesville. He found his seeds were in good condition, and set out at once to plant them. He traveled down the river valleys, stopping at each settlement and cabin to plant his appleseeds. He selected the best slopes for the trees, cleared the ground, planted the seeds, then put barricades about the little plots to keep deer and other inhabitants of the forest from destroying the young trees. He told the settlers how to care for the trees until he returned. All through the spring, Johnny was busy planting orchards. News of his work traveled ahead of him, so when he appeared he was always given a hearty welcome; first, because of his mission of love, and later, because people learned of his many virtues and his strong Christian character. Wherever he stopped, he helped the settlers with the tasks that were heavy. Thus he earned his board and shelter. He always carried a Bible with him, and evenings he read from it to the family.

In the late summer, Johnny set out for the cider mills of the east, going back to his old home in Pittsburgh. Here he gathered masses of pulp and carefully washed from it the small dark seeds. He dried them around chimneys and then placed them in sacks. Very early in the spring, he again started for the wilderness, going in company with emigrants. He visited each of the orchards started the year before, moved some of the little trees, trimmed them and gave further instructions for their care. He stopped to plant seeds on each new farm and in each new village. When it was possible to do so, he grafted buds from old, choice varieties of trees into his seedlings, thus insuring good fruit.

Thus Johnny worked, year after year, usually traveling on foot each spring through melting snows, over swampy lowlands and swift, swollen rivers, from the east to the settlements in the far west. He stopped to see old friends and to look after such orchards as needed his care. People learned to expect him at certain times, and always had something to offer him which would add to his comfort. Shirts, mittens, caps, woolen stockings — in fact, anything that he needed — were given him. His pouch was also well filled with good food when he was ready to continue his journey. Every fall he sought the cider mills to gather seeds for the following spring's work.

When Ohio was quite well settled and orchards were everywhere flourishing, Johnny Appleseed, as he came to be known, journeyed through Indiana, carrying with him his precious bags of seeds. He saw this region develop, as Ohio had done, into a thriving farming country, and all through it each spring were clusters of blossoming apple trees, whose beauty and fragrance did much to make the country seem homelike. When the early settlers began moving to Illinois, Johnny accompanied them, and there began again his self-imposed task of making the new country a happier dwelling place for the brave men and women who came to cast their fortunes there.

Three-quarters of a century ago, Johnny Appleseed was well known and much loved. Let us not forget him, nor the beautiful example of unselfish devotion to his fellowmen that he set before us.

Song . . . . *The Robin's Song*

L. Rountree Smith

Recitation . . . . *The Squirrels' Party*

Dame Nature said, "Dear leaves, come down,
You are needed now in Squirrel Town!"
But each bright leaf just shook its head,
"We'd rather stay up here," they said.
Then Nature said, "Oh come, wind, blow!
For winter soon will bring the snow,
And if no leaves fall down, alas,
Who then will cover up my grass?"
Stronger and stronger came the breeze,
Down fell the pretty, dancing leaves.

And they said, "It is fun to be flying down,
We will carpet all of Squirrel Town!"
So away and away and away they flew —
Where some of them went to, nobody knew!
The Squirrels chattered with glee when they found
A nice red carpet spread on the ground!
Then again they chattered and said, "Heigho!
We'll give a party before there's snow!"
The leaves made a carpet warm and bright,
Down, down, down they fell all night.
Then came flakes of feathery white,
And the Squirrels chattered, "Good night, good night!"
—Laura R. Smith.

ecitation . . . . *The River Path*

There's a path beside the river,
Winding through the willow copse,
Where I love to walk in autumn
Ere the season's curtain drops.

On far hillsides beech and maple,
Touched by early nipping frost,
Have their brown and crimson jackets
To the boisterous breezes tossed.

Still the willow leaves are clinging,
Latest foliage of fall,
Shading yet my river pathway
Underneath the osiers tall.

On the wimpling water's surface
Drift a million truant leaves,
Stolen from the woodland reaches
By the wind, the prince of thieves.

All along the river edges
Verdure's turned to brown and gray,
Rustling through the dying sedges
Autumn's low voiced breezes play.

Nowhere sweeter walk or rarer
Than my path beside the stream.
There I love to stroll in autumn,
There to loiter and to dream. — Frank Farrington.

The Boy Who Never Sees

God help the boy who never sees
The butterflies, the birds, the bees,
Nor hears the music of the breeze
  When zephyrs soft are blowing.
Who cannot in sweet comfort lie
Where clover blooms are thick and high,
And hear the gentle murmur nigh
  Of brooklets softly flowing.

God help the boy who does not know
Where all the woodland berries grow,
Who never sees the forests glow
  When leaves are red and yellow,
Whose childish feet can never stray.
For such a hapless boy I say
When Nature does her charms display —
  God help the little fellow.
— Nixon Waterman.

Quotations for Arbor Day

The robin, the forerunner of the Spring,
The bluebird with his jocund caroling,
The restless swallows building in the eaves,
The golden buttercups, the grass, the leaves,
The lilacs tossing in the winds of May,
All welcome this majestic holiday.
— Longfellow.

The Shade Tree

"Many a traveler in the heat,
Finds the cooling shade most sweet,
Stops to rest within the shade
That some wayside tree has made,
Feels the moist and dewy air
From a hundred leaflets fair
Fan his heated brow today,
And I think I hear him say:
'Bless the hand that set that tree
On this sunny street for me.' "

Debate:

Resolved, That women should not wear feathers from birds which have been killed for their feathers. Affirmative, two boys. Negative, two girls.

Reading . . . . *What the Birds Mean to Us*

At this time when the juniper, the shadbush and the flowering dogwood that grow beside the country road need a special plea to save them from the axe of "Improvement;" when the gunner, who is accused of shooting a sea gull or a swallow, asks in blank amazement, "What's the use of that bird?"— it is worth while to consider the esthetic value of birds to the commonwealth. The child or the savage needs no such reminder. The graceful, feathered form, the darting flight, the flash of color, the entrancing song, are excuse enough for the birds' existence. Without them "the open" is a desolate void. What would May day be without the songs of spring? Would the pleasure of the dim forest be complete without its tapping woodpeckers, its drumming grouse and the anthem of the thrush? What are the meadows of June without their rollicking bob-o-links and the lisps of the meadowlarks; or the hillside copse without its rolling bird songs and the hidden nests with speckled eggs? Could the old hay barn have been complete without its twittering swallows, or the garden exactly like paradise if the bluebird had failed to flash his azure wing and warble his mellow love note? And a morning in the marshes, could it have such artistic finish without its gorgeous redwings, its chattering marsh wrens, its clattering rails, and the mysterious booming of its bitterns? The "haunts of coot and hern" repay us for our visit only when the inhabitants are at home. The "rapture of the lonely shore" finds its real climax with its coursing gulls and screaming sea fowl.

— Elon Howard Eaton in *New York School Bulletin*.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Recitation . . . . . . *Who Stole the Bird's Nest?*

"To-whit, to-whit, to-whee!
Will you listen to me?
Who stole four eggs I laid
And the nice nest I made?"

"Not I," said the cow; "moo-oo!
Such a thing I'd never do.
I gave you a wisp of hay,
But I didn't take your nest away.
Not I," said the cow; "moo-oo!
Such a thing I'd never do!"

"Bob-o'-link! bob-o'-link!
Now, what do you think?
Who stole a nest away
From the plum-tree today?"

"Not I," said the dog; "bow-wow!
I wouldn't be so mean I vow,
I gave hair the nest to make,
But the nest I did not take.
Not I," said the dog; "bow-wow!
I wouldn't be so mean I vow!"

"Coo-oo, coo-oo, coo-oo!
Let me speak a word or two:
Who stole that pretty nest,
From little-yellow-breast?"

"Not I," said the sheep; "oh, no!
I wouldn't treat a poor bird so,
I gave wool the nest to line,
But the nest was none of mine.
Baa, baa!" said the sheep; "oh, no!
I wouldn't treat a poor bird so!"

"Caw, caw!" cried the crow;
"I should like to know
What thief took away
A bird's nest today?"

"Cluck, cluck!" said the hen;
"Don't ask me again.
Why, I haven't a chick
Would do such a trick!
We each gave her a feather
And she wove them together.
I'd scorn to intrude
On her and her brood.
"Cluck, cluck!" said the hen;
"Don't ask me again."

"Chir-a-whir! chir-a-whir!
We'll make a great stir,
And find out his name,
And all cry, 'For shame!' "

"I would not rob a bird,"
Said little Mary Green;
"I think I never heard
Of anything so mean."
"It is very cruel, too,"
Said little Alice Neal;
"I wonder if he knew
How sad the bird would feel!"

A little boy hung down his head,
And went and hid behind the bed;
For he stole that pretty nest,
From poor little yellow-breast;
And he felt so full of shame,
He didn't like to tell his name.
— L. Maria Child.

ng . . . . *Listen to the Mockingbird*

For Seven Little Folks

(Each one is to carry the flower or plant of which he speaks.)

Little Baby Violet,
On her mother's lap,
In her pretty dress of green,
And her wee blue cap;

Laughing at the sunshine,
Nodding to the bee,—
Cunning little violet,
Who so sweet as she?

The wind goes calling through the grass
"Come Kitty, Kitty Clover!"
"Dear Wind," purrs Kitty, drowsily,
"Oh say is winter over?"
"Yes, yes," the laughing wind replies,
"It is the month of May;
And Buttercup and Violet
Are dressed for Arbor Day."
Then up springs Clover from her nap,
And dons her coat of pink,
The very prettiest kitty,
Of all the kits, I think.

Look at Boy Buttercup,
Gay little fellow,
Out in the meadow grass,
Dressed all in yellow;
When the bright sunbeams peep
Through the sky's blue,
"Ho!" cries Boy Buttercup,
"I'm golden as you."

There's an odd little boy that I've often seen,
He's always dressed in a coat of green,
With a flapping hat pulled over his face
To keep off the heat of the sun's bright rays.
He's an awfully quiet sort of a chap,
And I think he's generally taking a nap,
For never a single word will he say,
Though I speak to him twenty times a day.
What is his name? Just bend your ear,
It's "Jack-in-the-Pulpit"— isn't that queer?

The daisy's throne is emerald green,
Her robe is ermine white
And on her pretty head she wears
A crown all golden bright.
The sunbeams, dew, and breezes soft
Are courtiers, blithe and gay,
And the meadow is the kingdom
Of this fair queen of May.

My big, big brother said to me
"There's a lion 'way down there."
He thought, 'cause I am only six,
I'd get an awful scare;
I wasn't 'fraid a single bit,
But on to school kept going,
And 'way, 'way down the road I found
A dandelion growing.

Captain Grass Blade now is seen,
In his uniform of green,
Followed by his soldiers true,
Marching woods and meadows through;
On, and ever on, they go,
Stopping not for friend or foe,
And they will not halt until
Winter bids them all stand still.
— Virginia Baker.

Historic Trees

(An exercise for seven pupils.)

I. Charter Oak

In history we often see
The record of a noted tree.
We'll now some history pages turn
And note what trees we there discern;
And foremost of this famous band
We think the Charter Oak should stand.
We love to read the story o'er
How Andrus came from England's shore
As governor in this new land,
And ruled it with a tyrant's hand;
How, when he came to Hartford town
Demanding with a haughty frown
The charter of the people's rights,
All suddenly out went the lights;
And ere again they re-appeared,
The charter to their hearts endeared
Lay safely in this hollow tree,
Guard of the people's liberty.
All honor, then, to Wadsworth's name,
Who gave the Charter Oak its fame.

II. Liberty Elm

Another very famous tree
Was called the Elm of Liberty.
Beneath its shade the patriots bold
For tyranny their hatred told.
Upon its branches high and free
Were often hung in effigy
Such persons as the patriots thought
Opposed the freedom which they sought.
In war time, oft beneath this tree
The people prayed for victory;
And when at last the old tree fell
There sadly rang each Boston bell.

III. Washington Elm

In Cambridge there is standing yet
A tree we never should forget;
For here, equipped with sword and gun,
There stood our honored Washington,
When of the little patriot band
For freedom's cause he took command.
Despite its age — three hundred years —
Its lofty head it still uprears;
Its mighty arms extending wide,
It stands our country's boasted pride.

IV. Burgoyne's Elm

When, in spite of pride, pomp and boast,
Burgoyne surrendered with his host,
And then was brought to Albany
A prisoner of war to be,
In gratitude for his defeat,
That day, upon the city street,
An elm was planted, which they say
Still stands in memory of that day.

V. The Treaty Elm

Within the Quaker City's realm,
There stood the famous Treaty Elm.
Here, with its sheltering boughs above,
Good William Penn, in peace and love,

The Indians met, and there agreed,
Upon that treaty which we read
Was never broken, though no oath
Was taken — justice guiding both.
A monument now marks the ground
Where once this honored tree was found.

VI. Tree from Napoleon's Grave

Within a city of the dead,
Near Bunker Hill, just at the head
Of Cotton Mather's grave, there stands
A weeping willow which fond hands
Brought from Napoleon's grave, they say,
In St. Helena, far away.

VII. The Cary Tree

I'll tell you of a sycamore
And how two poets' names it bore;
Upon Ohio's soil it stands,
'Twas placed there by the childish hands
Of sister poets, and is known
As Alice and Phoebe Cary's own.
One day, when little girls, they found
A sapling lying on the ground;
They planted it with tenderest care
Beside this pleasant highway, where
It grew and thrived and lived to be
To all around the Cary tree.

VIII. The Hamilton Trees

In New York City proudly stand
Thirteen monarchs, lofty, grand,
Their branches tow'ring toward the sun
Are monuments of Hamilton,
Who planted them in pride that we
Had won our cause and liberty —
A tribute, history relates,
To the original thirteen States.

IX. Recitation by the School

We reverence these famous trees.
What better monuments than these?
How fitting on each Arbor Day
That we a grateful tribute pay
To poet, statesman, author, friend,
To one whose deeds our hearts commend
As lovingly we plant a tree
Held sacred to his memory;
A fresh memorial, as each year
New life and buds and leaves appear —
A living monumental tree,
True type of immortality. — Ada Simpson Sherwood.

Reading . . . . *Planting Trees*

The celebration of Arbor Day has led to the planting of many trees and to a greater love for Nature on the part of the pupils. Some teachers, however, have been discouraged because the trees which they planted did not grow. In order that they may thrive, the teacher should study the soil where she wishes to plant the tree, and also that in which the tree is growing. The new home for the tree should be made as much like the old, as possible. A large hole should be dug in which to place the tree so that none of the roots will be cramped. If the soil is poor, partly fill the hole with rich loam from the woods, or with manure. If the latter is used, be careful that it does not come in direct contact with the roots. It is well to place a covering of clay over the manure.

Select a tree of medium size for transplanting. Remove the top soil down to the roots, then cut a circle around the tree with a sharp spade. If the soil seems dry it would be well to turn water around the base of the tree so that considerable soil will remain on the roots for protection while being moved. If the tap root extends some distance, it can be cut without serious injury to the tree, but the fine fibrous roots should be injured as little as possible. If the tree is to be carried some distance, the roots should be protected by damp moss, earth or sacking, so that they will not dry out.

The tree should be set a little deeper than it formerly grew. The roots should be spread out in a natural position, and the fine surface soil carefully worked in among them by hand. After a good deal of dirt has been thrown over the roots, tramp it down firmly. Water may then be turned into the hole around the tree and more soil added and packed down until the hole is filled even with the surface of the ground. More water may then be turned around the tree and fresh dirt mulched with grass, straw or leaves, to the depth of ten inches. If the seasons should be dry for one or two years, the new trees should be frequently watered. The top of the tree should be pruned to correspond with the shortened root system.

Elms, hard maples and lindens are easily transplanted, but oaks and hickories are best raised from seed. Norway maples grow better than any other hardwood tree on dry, sandy soil.

In celebrating Arbor Day, one should endeavor to interest the pupils so much in the work of planting and caring for trees and plants that their efforts in this direction will extend throughout the year.

Many trees planted in school yards in rural districts die for want of care during the long summer vacation. The trees should be watered every few days and most of them would be saved were they watered once or twice a week. It is a good plan to secure the interest of the older boys in the care of the trees. Let two boys agree to water them for a stated period, say two weeks, then two others take the responsibility and so on through the vacation. In the fall the boys can report to the school what they have done and the progress the trees have made.

A FEW POINTERS ON PLANTING TREES

1. Trees are best when nursery grown.
2. Trees transplanted from the woods should be seedlings.
3. A tree two inches in diameter measured one foot from the ground is large enough.

4. Trees should have a compact root system, straight main trunk and well balanced top.

5. The lower branches should be trimmed to a height of seven feet from the ground.

6. Trees should be free from fungus and insect diseases.

7. Tree holes should be larger than required by the root system.

8. Trees should be planted with as large a root system as possible.

9. Prevent drying, sunburn or freezing of exposed roots.

10. Plant the tree at the same depth and exposure as it formerly stood.

11. Trim off all torn and broken roots and branches with sharp pruner before planting.

12. Plant no trees closer than twenty-five feet.

13. Arrange the roots to spread naturally in loose soil.

14. Tamp the soil well about the roots.

15. Water the young tree freely, especially during June, July and August, with one or two thorough waterings each week.

16. Keep the soil cultivated around young trees.

17. A serviceable and strong tree guard should be placed around the tree.

Song . . . . *Selected*

A paper or talk by one of the older pupils, subject, *How to Attract and Keep the Birds*. For material, see Vol. II, pages 51-62.

Let several pupils describe some of our common birds, assigning one bird to each pupil:
The crow, Vol. II, page 62.
The robin, Vol. II, page 64.
Other birds, Vol. II, page 128.
Distribute these descriptions through the program.

Recitation . . . . *The Grape-Vine Swing*

Lithe and long as the serpent train,
  Springing and clinging from tree to tree,
Now darting upward, now down again,
  With a twist and a twirl that are strange to see;
Never took serpent a deadlier hold,
  Never the cougar a wilder spring,
Strangling the oak with the boa's fold,
  Spanning the beech with the condor's wing.

Yet no foe that we fear to seek —
  The boy leaps wild to thy rude embrace;
Thy bulging arms bear as soft a cheek
  As ever on lover's breast found place;
On thy waving train is a playful hold
  Thou shalt never to lighter grasp persuade;
While a maiden sits in thy drooping fold,
  And swings and sings in the noonday shade!

O giant strong of our southern woods,
  I dream of thee still in the well-known spot,
Though our vessel strains o'er the ocean floods,
  And the northern forest beholds thee not;
I think of thee still with a sweet regret,
  As the cordage yields to my playful grasp,—
Dost thou spring and cling in our woodlands yet?
  Does the maiden still swing in thy giant clasp?

— Simms.

Reading . . *Birds Which Are Helpful to the Farmer*

(Taken from the chart of F. L. Washburn, State Entomologist and Professor of Entomology, Agricultural Experiment Station, St. Anthony Park, Minn.)

Rose-Breasted Grosbeak.— Extremely fond of potato beetles, eats hairless caterpillars, Gypsy moth larvae.

Black-Billed Cuckoo.— One of the few birds eating hairy caterpillars, devours the larva of the brown-tailed moth and the spiny elm caterpillar.

House Wren.— Ninety-eight per cent of its food composed of animal matter, insects, etc.; a valuable friend in the garden.

Chipping Sparrow.— Over twenty-five per cent of its food consists of injurious insects, plant lice, leaf-eating beetles, canker worms, and caterpillars of various sorts.

Downy Woodpecker.— Feeds on borers, weevils, caterpillars, ants and plant lice, woolly aphis, apple worms, moths and insect eggs; a friend of the fruit grower and lumberman.

Chickadee.— Eats eggs of tent caterpillars and canker worms, destroys codling moth and apple worm, Gypsy and brown-tail moths and destroys plant lice and their eggs.

Screech Owl.— One of the farmer's best friends, since it consumes large quantities of common mice, field mice, caterpillars, beetles, etc.

Quail.— One of the most useful birds. Eats seeds of weeds and takes but little grain or useful berries, destroys grasshoppers, chinch bugs, army worms, potato beetles, cucumber beetles, May beetles, wire worms, etc. Over one hundred potato beetles found in stomach of one quail.

Scarlet Tanager.— Feeds particularly on insects affecting oak trees, destroys Gypsy moth.

Song Sparrow.— Fifty per cent of its food consists of seeds of weeds, also eats cabbage plant lice, cut worms, leaf hoppers, spittle insects, grasshoppers.

Some Arbor-Day Facts

(For Eight Boys)

The boys, each carrying a small bough, take their places in line on the stage, and each recites his sentence in turn.

First Boy. Arbor Day originated in Nebraska in 1872. It has since been established in every state in the Union.

Second Boy. Statistics show that there have been planted in Nebraska, since Arbor Day was established, over six hundred million of fruit and shade trees.

Third Boy. The Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario, says, "Arbor Day has now become one of the most profitable and interesting holidays of the year."

Fourth Boy. Many educators declare that there should be in every school district a "Shade Tree Planting Association."

Fifth Boy. Children should plant trees along the highways, if the work is not done by older people.

Sixth Boy. Children can persuade people to adorn church-yards and public squares with shade trees.

Seventh Boy. Trees should not be planted too near houses.

Eighth Boy. Trees should not be planted too near together.

First Boy. As the leaves of trees are said to absorb all noxious qualities of the air, and to breathe forth a purer atmosphere, so it seems as if they drew from us all sordid and angry passions, and breathed forth peace and philanthropy.

Second Boy. Wood and gold are the basis of national wealth and, although we cannot always find gold, we can always plant trees.

Third Boy. Trees improve the climate by sheltering the ground so that it is warmer in winter and cooler in summer.

Fourth Boy. Trees shelter animals and homes from the winds of winter.

Fifth Boy. Trees furnish material for a great variety of things used by man.

Sixth Boy. The tree is the father of the rain, and the mother of the fountain.

Seventh Boy. The wealth, beauty, fertility and healthfulness of the country largely depend on our forests.

Eighth Boy. And now let us all go out and plant trees.

— *Journal of Education.*

Song . . . . *Tree-Planting*

(Tune, *My Country, 'Tis of Thee.*)

Joy for the sturdy trees;
Fanned by each fragrant breeze,
  Lovely they stand.
The song birds o'er them trill;
They shade each tinkling rill;
They crown each swelling hill.
  Lowly or grand.

Plant them by stream and way,
Plant them where children play,
And toilers rest;
In every verdant vale,
On every sunny swale;
Whether to grow or fail
God knoweth best.

Select the strong, the fair;
Plant them with earnest care —
No toil is vain;
Plant in a fitter place,
Where, like a lovely face
Set in some sweeter grace,
Change may prove gain.

God will his blessing send;
All things on Him depend —
His loving care
Clings to each leaf and flower,
Like ivy to the tower —
His presence and His power
Are everywhere.

— Samuel Francis Smith.

Reading . . . . *The Night Wind*

Have you ever heard the wind go
"Yooooo?"
'Tis a pitiful sound to hear!
It seems to chill you through and through
With a strange and speechless fear.
'Tis the voice of the night that broods outside
When folks should be asleep,
And many and many's the time I've cried
To the darkness brooding far and wide
Over the land and the deep:
"Whom do you want, O lonely night,
That you wail the long hours through?"
And the night would say in its ghostly way:
"Yoooooooo!
Yoooooooo!
Yoooooooo!"

My mother told me long ago
(When I was a little tad)
That when the night went wailing so,
Somebody had been bad;
And then, when I was snug in bed,
Whither I had been sent,
With the blankets pulled up round my head,
I'd think of what my mother'd said,
And wonder what boy she meant!
And "Who's been bad to-day?" I'd ask
Of the wind that hoarsely blew,
And the wind would say in its meaningful way:
"Yooooooooo!
Yooooooooo!
Yooooooooo!"

That this was true I must allow —
You'll not believe it, though!
Yes, though I'm quite a model now,
I was not always so.
And if you doubt what things I say,
Suppose you make the test;
Suppose, when you've been bad some day
And up to bed are sent away
From mother and the rest —
Suppose you ask, "Who has been bad?"
And then you'll hear what's true;
For the wind will moan in its ruefullest tone:
"Yooooooooo!
Yooooooooo!
Yooooooooo!"

— *Eugene Field.*

SUGGESTIONS

Whenever possible these exercises should be held out-of-doors and in connection with the planting of the tree, which should constitute a feature of the program. Flowers, flags and bunting are suitable for decorations. If the exercises are to be held in the schoolroom, two or three canary birds in their cages enliven the program, and their presence emphasizes the bird feature of the day. There is enough material in this program to make two separate programs, one for Arbor Day and one for Bird Day, if the teacher so desires.

MOTHER'S DAY

Second Sunday in May

THE DEAR MOTHER LOVE

Mothers' arms were made for holding,
Made for folding snug and tight,
Little forms so soft and helpless,
Nestled there to say goodnight.

Mothers' hands were made for stroking,
Made for soothing childish woes;
Balm of wondrous magic healing
Through each gentle finger flows.

Mothers' lips were made for kissing,
Made for drowning childish fears;
Smiles and kisses both together
Stop the flow of bitter tears.

Mothers' hearts were made for loving,
Made for love no others know.
God in Heaven! Bless and keep it
Ever pure as whitest snow.

— Cora Lindsey Field.

All that I am and all that I hope to be, I owe to my angel mother.
— Abraham Lincoln.

Opening Song . . . . *Mother o' Mine*

Recitation . . . . *The Old Arm Chair*

I love it, I love it! and who shall dare
To chide me for loving that old arm-chair?
I've treasured it long as a sainted prize,
I've bedewed it with tears, I've embalmed it with sighs.
'Tis bound by a thousand bands to my heart;
Not a tie will break, not a link will start;
Would you know the spell?— a mother sat there!
And a sacred thing is that old arm-chair.

In childhood's hour I lingered near
The hallowed seat with listening ear;
And gentle words that mother would give
To fit me to die, and teach me to live.
She told me that shame would never betide
With Truth for my creed, and God for my guide;
She taught me to lisp my earliest prayer,
As I knelt beside that old arm-chair.

I sat, and watched her many a day,
When her eye grew dim, and her locks were gray;
And I almost worshipped her when she smiled,
And turned from her Bible to bless her child.
Years rolled on, but the last one sped,—
My idol was shattered, my earth-star fled!
I learnt how much the heart can bear,
When I saw her die in her old arm-chair.

'Tis past, 'tis past! but I gaze on it now,
With quivering breath and throbbing brow:
'Twas there she nursed me, 'twas there she died,
And memory flows with lava tide.
Say it is folly, and deem me weak,
Whilst scalding drops start down my cheek;
But I love it, I love it, and cannot tear
My soul from a mother's old arm-chair.
— Eliza Cook.

Recitation . . . . . *She Was a Phantom of Delight*

She was a phantom of delight
When first she gleamed upon my sight;
A lovely apparition, sent
To be a moment's ornament;
Her eyes as stars of twilight fair;
Like Twilight's too, her dusky hair;
But all things else about her drawn
From May-time and the cheerful dawn;
A dancing shape, an image gay,
To haunt, to startle, and waylay.

I saw her upon nearer view,
A spirit, yet a woman too!
Her household motions light and free,
And steps of virgin-liberty;
A countenance in which did meet
Sweet records, promises as sweet;
A creature not too bright or good
For human nature's daily food,
For transient sorrows, simple wiles,
Praise, blame, love, kisses, tears, and smiles.

And now I see with eye serene
The very pulse of the machine;
A being breathing thoughtful breath,
A traveller between life and death:
The reason firm, the temperate will,
Endurance, foresight, strength, and skill;
A perfect woman, nobly planned
To warn, to comfort, and command;
And yet a spirit still, and bright
With something of an angel-light.
— William Wordsworth.

Reading . . . . *The Gray Swan*

"Oh, tell me, sailor, tell me true,
Is my little lad, my Elihu,
A-sailing with your ship?"
The sailor's eyes were dim with dew.
"Your little lad, your Elihu?"
He said with trembling lip,—
"What little lad? what ship?"

"What little lad? as if there could be
Another such a one as he!
What little lad, do you say?
Why Elihu, that took to the sea
The moment I put him off my knee!
It was just the other day
The 'Gray Swan' sailed away."

"The other day?" The sailor's eyes
Stood open with a great surprise:
"The other day? the 'Swan'?"
His heart began in this throat to rise.
"Ay, ay, sir, here in the cupboard lies
The jacket he had on."
"And so your lad is gone?'

"Gone with the 'Swan'?"—"And did she stand
With her anchor clutching hold of the sand
For a month, and never stir?"
"Why, to be sure! I've seen from the land,
Like a lover kissing his lady's hand,
The wild sea kissing her,—
A sight to remember, sir!"

"But, my good mother, do you know
All this was twenty years ago?
I stood on the 'Gray Swan's' deck,
And to that lad I saw you throw,
Taking it off as it might be,— so!—
The kerchief from your neck."
"Ay, and he'll bring it back!"

"And did the little lawless lad,
That has made you sick and made you sad,
Sail with the 'Gray Swan's' crew?"
"Lawless! The man is going mad!
The best boy ever mother had!—
Be sure he sailed with the crew!
What would you have him do?"

"And has he never written line,
Nor sent you word, nor made you sign,
To say he was alive?"
"Hold! If 'twas wrong, the wrong is mine;
Besides, he may lie in the brine;
And could he write from the grave?
Tut, man! what would you have?"

"Gone twenty years,— a long, long cruise!
'Twas wicked thus your love to abuse!
But if the lad still live,
And come back home, think you you can
Forgive him?" "Miserable man!
You're mad as the sea, you rave!
What have I to forgive?"

The sailor twitched his shirt so blue,
And from within his bosom drew
The kerchief. She was wild.
"O God, my Father! is it true?
My little lad, my Elihu!
My blessed boy, my child!
My dead, my living child!" — Alice Cary.

Song . . . . *The Dearest Spot on Earth to Me*

Recitation . . . . *How's My Boy*

Ho, sailor of the sea!
How's my boy — my boy?
"What's your boy's name, good wife,
And in what good ship sailed he?"

My boy John —
He that went to sea —
What care I for the ship, sailor?
My boy's my boy to me.

You come back from sea
And not know my John?
I might as well have asked some landsman
Yonder down in the town.
There's not an ass in all the parish
But he knows my John.

How's my boy — my boy?
And unless you let me know
I'll swear you are no sailor,
Blue jacket or no,
Brass button or no, sailor,
Anchor and crown or no!
Sure his ship was the "Jolly Briton"—
"Speak low, woman, speak low!"

And why should I speak low, sailor,
About my own boy John?
If I was loud as I am proud
I'd sing him over the town!
Why should I speak low, sailor?
"That good ship went down."

How's my boy — my boy?
What care I for the ship, sailor,
I never was aboard her.
Be she afloat, or be she aground,
Sinking or swimming, I'll be bound
Her owners can afford her!
I say, how's my John?
"Every man on board went down,
Every man aboard her."

How's my boy—my boy?
What care I for the men, sailor?
I'm not their mother—
How's my boy—my boy?
Tell me of him and no other!
How's my boy—my boy?

— Sydney Dobell.

Song . . . . *Sweet and Low*

Recitation . . . . *Mother's Song*

(For a Little Girl)

My heart is like a fountain true
That flows and flows with love to you.
As chirps the lark unto the tree
So chirps my pretty babe to me.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

There's not a rose where'er I seek,
As comely as my baby's cheek.
There's not a comb of honey-bee,
So full of sweets as babe to me.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

There's not a star that shines on high,
Is brighter than my baby's eye.
There's not a boat upon the sea,
Can dance as baby does to me.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

No silk was ever spun so fine
As is the hair of baby mine —
My baby smells more sweet to me
Than smells in spring the elder tree.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

A little fish swims in the well,
So in my heart does baby dwell.
A little flower blows on the tree,
And baby is the flower to me.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

The Queen has sceptre, crown and ball,
You are my sceptre, crown and all.
For all her robes of royal silk,
More fair your skin, as white as milk.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.

Ten thousand parks where deer run,
Ten thousand roses in the sun.
Ten thousand pearls beneath the sea,
My baby more precious is to me.
And it's O! sweet, sweet! and a lullaby.
— West of England Lullaby.

Reading . . . . *The Mother's Hope*

Is there, when the winds are singing
In the happy summer time,—
When the raptured air is ringing
With Earth's music heavenward springing,
Forest chirp, and village chime,—
Is there, of the sounds that float
Unsighingly, a single note
Half so sweet and clear and wild
As the laughter of a child?

Listen! and be now delighted:
Morn hath touched her golden strings;
Earth and Sky their vows have plighted;
Life and Light are reunited
Amid countless carollings;
Yet delicious as they are,
There's a sound that's sweeter far,—
One that makes the heart rejoice
More than all,— the human voice!

Organ finer, deeper, clearer,
Though it be a stranger's tone,—
Than the winds or waters dearer,
More enchanting to the hearer,
For it answereth to his own.
But, of all its witching words,
Sweeter than the song of birds,
Those are sweetest, bubbling wild
Through the laughter of a child.

Harmonies from time-touched towers,
Haunted strains from rivulets,
Hum of bees among the flowers,
Rustling leaves, and silver showers,—
These, erelong, the ear forgets;
But in mine there is a sound
Ringing on the whole year round,—
Heart-deep laughter that I heard
Ere my child could speak a word.

Ah! 'twas heard by ear far purer,
Fondlier formed to catch the strain,—
Ear of one whose love is surer,—
Hers, the mother, the endurer
Of the deepest share of pain;
Hers the deepest bliss to treasure
Memories of that cry of pleasure;
Hers to hoard, a lifetime after,
Echoes of that infant laughter.

'Tis a mother's large affection
Hears with a mysterious sense,—
Breathings that evade detection,
Whisper faint, and fine inflection,
Thrill in her with power intense.
—Laman Blanchard.

Recitation . . . . *Mother and Child*

The wind blew wide the casement, and within —
It was the loveliest picture!— a sweet child
Lay in its mother's arms, and drew its life,
In pauses, from the fountain,— the white round
Part shaded by loose tresses, soft and dark,
Concealing, but still showing, the fair realm
Of so much rapture, as green shadowing trees
With beauty shroud the brooklet. The red lips
Were parted, and the cheek upon the breast
Lay close, and, like the young leaf of the flower,
Wore the same color, rich and warm and fresh: —
And such alone are beautiful. Its eye,
A full blue gem, most exquisitely set,
Looked archly on its world,— the little imp,
As if it knew even then that such a wreath
Were not for all; and with its playful hands
It drew aside the robe that hid its realm,
And peeped and laughed aloud, and so it laid
Its head upon the shrine of such pure joys,
And laughing, slept. And while it slept the tears
Of the sweet mother fell upon its cheek,—
Tears such as fall from April skies, and bring
The sunlight after. They were tears of joy;
And the true heart of that young mother then
Grew lighter, and she sang unconsciously
The silliest ballad-song that ever yet
Subdued the nursery's voices, and brought sleep
To fold her sabbath wings above its couch.

— William Gilmore Simms.

Recitation . . . . *Mother*

One not learned, save in gracious household ways;
Not perfect, nay, but full of tender wants;
No angel, but a dearer being, all dipt
In angel instincts, breathing Paradise,
Interpreter between the gods and man,
Who looked all native to her place, and yet
On tiptoe seemed to touch upon a sphere
Too gross to tread, and all male minds perforce
Swayed to her from their orbits as they moved,
And girdled her with music. Happy he

With such a mother! faith in womankind
Beats with his blood, and trust in all things high
Comes easy to him, and though he trip and fall
He shall not blind his soul with clay.
— Tennyson's *The Princess.*

To My Mother

I do not build a monument
Of carved white marble for your sake,
That only those who pass may read,
And only those memorial make.

My life must be the monument
I consecrate in your behalf;
My charity must carve your name,
My gentleness your epitaph.

Above this record I engrave,
No drooping figure there must be;
Straight-shouldered courage, starry-eyed,
Must mark this scroll of destiny.

And may some fragments of your strength
By God's great mystery fall on me,
That through this monument of mine,
May shine your immortality.
— Claudia Cranston.

Song . . . . *Home Sweet Home*

SUGGESTIONS

On Mother's Day effort should be made to secure the attendance of the mothers. If there are any grandmothers in the district make special effort to have them present. If possible easy chairs should be provided for them. No special decorations are necessary, but if you can make such changes as will give the schoolroom the semblance of a home this will help to put the pupils and the visitors in a right spirit for the program.

Peace Palace at the Hague

The Christ of the Andes

PEACE DAY

MAY 18

The Coming of Peace

Put off, put off your mail, ye kings, and beat
your brands to dust,
A surer grasp your hands must know, your hearts
a better trust;
Nay, bend aback the lance's point, and break the
helmet bar,
A noise is in the morning's winds, but not the
noise of war.
Among the grassy mountain paths the glittering
troops increase —
They come! They come!— how fair their feet!—
they come that publish peace!
Yea, Victory! fair Victory! our enemies!
and ours,
And all the clouds are clasped in light, and all the
earth with flowers.
Ah! still depressed and dim with dew, but yet a
little while,
And radiant with the deathless rose the wilderness
shall smile,
And every tender, living thing shall feed by
streams of rest,
Nor lamb shall from the fold be lost, or nursling
from the nest.

— John Ruskin.

Opening Song . . . . . . *The Coming Day of Peace*

(Tune, *Battle Hymn of the Republic.*)

Mine eyes have seen the dawning
Of a bright and glorious day,
When the war god's reign of anguish
Shall fore'er have passed away,
When the Prince of Peace in beauty
O'er the nations shall hold sway,
For truth the day must gain.

Chorus

Glory, glory, hallelujah! Glory, glory, hallelujah!
Glory, glory, hallelujah! The Prince of Peace shall reign.

No more shall mangled corpses
Strew the cursed battle plain
While the tears of stricken women
Fall like floods of scalding rain,
And the nation's hands are branded
With the bloody mark of Cain,
For peace the day must gain.

Reading . . . . *Peace Day*

(Let the divisions be read by different pupils.)

INTRODUCTION

For many years the foremost thinkers of the world have advocated world peace, but never has the interest in this great movement been keener than it is today, and never in the history of the world was there greater need of it than now. While everyone can see the advantages of settling national disputes peaceably, the world still needs to be educated more highly in order to know that this *can be done*. As yet, the spirit of primitive warriors is still strong in the breasts of many men, and until they learn to control their passions and to use their minds instead of their weapons, conflicts will not cease.

There is no better way to help forward this great movement than by training children while young to acquire that strength of character which makes one absolute master of himself, and to possess the fine courage that makes possible the "soft answer" under any provocation. By celebrations of Peace Day, the older pupils and the patrons of the school learn the history of the peace movement and of the great things thus far accomplished by it. In this way the great possibilities of the future are shown and the sympathy and co-operation of the people secured.

One of the most effective entertainments for Peace Day is a peace pageant. It appeals both to the eye and the mind, and cannot fail to impress its lesson upon all who witness it. A Pageant of Peace arranged by Beulah Marie Dix and published by the American School Peace League is well adapted to use in graded schools.

World-Wide Peace

To many people the idea of universal peace seems new, but as long ago as the early part of the 17th century, Henry IV of France planned for a United Europe. He hoped to see these countries unite their armies and navies for common protection. He hoped also to see the states governed by a council composed of members chosen by each country, but before the plan could be perfected the king was killed.

Later, in the same century, the famous Hollander, Hugo Grotius, published a book concerning war and peace, which showed clearly the awful results of war. He besought all nations to settle their quarrels by arbitration. His book had great weight with the best thinkers of that time. He is often called the founder of international law.

Towards the close of the 17th century, a society was founded in England by George Fox to promote good will and brotherhood among men. The members of this society were called *Friends*, or *Quakers*. William Penn, a member of this society, carried their principles of peace to America. Guided by these ideas, he founded the City of Brotherly Love, and taught the world by his treaty with the Indians that two widely different races can live together in peace, if they so desire.

In the 18th century a German, Immanuel Kant, wrote an article in which he suggested a union of all the countries in the world. In 1789 he saw a beginning made towards this end when the thirteen colonies in America joined and became one nation.

In the 19th century many prominent writers and leaders worked earnestly to educate the world to the advantages of settling all differences by arbitration, and as a result two Hague conferences were held which did much to promote broader sympathies and better understanding among the nations.

In 1906, in London, the International Brotherhood Alliance was established. Its pledge is this:

"We undertake to do everything in our power to promote good feeling with the people of other nations; and we will do all we can to discourage anything which goes to make those relations other than friendly."

Besides the American Peace Society and the World Peace Foundation, whose aim is to secure universal peace, there are nearly 600 peace societies throughout the world. Thus the sentiment is growing rapidly and is taking firm hold upon the hearts of people all over the world. Although wars may not cease for sometime, we may look confidently forward to a glad day that shall dawn when "peace and good will" will reign over the whole world.

Recitation . . . . *The Soldier's Dream*

Our bugles sang truce — for the night-cloud had lowered;
And the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky;
And thousands had sunk on the ground overpowered,
The weary to sleep, the wounded to die.

When reposing that night on my pallet of straw,
By the wolf-scaring faggot that guarded the slain,
At the dead of the night a sweet vision I saw,
And thrice ere the morning I dreamt it again.

Me thought from the battle-field's dreadful array,
Far, far I had roamed on a desolate track;
'Twas autumn — and sunshine arose on the way,
To the home of my fathers, that welcomed me back.

I flew to the pleasant field traversed so oft
In life's morning march when my bosom was young;
I heard my own mountain goats bleating aloft,
And knew the sweet strain the corn-reapers sung.

Then pledged we the wine-cup, and fondly I swore
From my home and my weeping friends never to part;
My little ones kissed me a thousand times o'er,
And my wife sobbed aloud in her fullness of heart.

"Stay, stay with us — rest, thou art weary and worn,"
And fain was their war-broken soldier to stay;
But sorrow returned with the dawning of morn,
And the voice in my dreaming melted away.

— Thomas Campbell.

Reading . . . . *The Story of the Peace Conference*

For many years there lived in Poland, a far-seeing, broad-minded Jew, Jean de Bloch. He was at the head of one of the largest banks in Poland and held many responsible positions with the government. He wrote many books concerning Russia and her institutions, but the most famous one was *The Future of War*. The Czar read this and was greatly impressed by it, as were all the great thinkers of Europe. All the great nations were spending millions of dollars each year to build greater navies and to maintain greater armies, while the people of each country were suffering for better schools, better roads and greater agricultural advantages. The Czar thought if each country would spend less on preparations for war and more on its schools and other institutions, there would be greater prosperity.

Accordingly, in 1899, the Czar sent a personal letter to each of the twenty-six foreign representatives at his court, in which he asked them to invite their governments to send delegates to a world convention to discuss means of securing peace without the use of great armies.

The ministers of different countries at first questioned the Czar's motives for calling this meeting, but the nations gladly accepted the invitation to send representatives to the conference.

The Czar suggested that the meeting should be held in some country for which all entertained a friendly feeling, and with which no country had questions of import to settle. All agreed with him. Hence the capital of Holland was chosen, and Queen Wilhelmina was asked if her country would receive these representatives as its guests. The young queen, then but eighteen years old, was proud of the honor thus bestowed upon herself and Holland. She hastened to extend invitations to the nations to send their representatives to ***The Hague***, and offered her summer palace, ***The House in the Wood***, as a place in which to hold the meeting.

This palace is situated in the midst of an old forest, about a mile from The Hague. Its interior is beautifully decorated by the work of famous artists. The ball room is especially attractive. On its walls is a painting representing peace descending from heaven.

In this room, in front of this picture, seats were arranged for one hundred delegates, the exact number in attendance. The conference was called to order May 18, 1899, the Czar's birthday, by Holland's minister of foreign affairs. He welcomed the convention in the name of Queen Wilhelmina. The Russian ambassador was chosen president of the convention. After sending greetings to Queen Wilhelmina and congratulations and good wishes to the Czar, the ministers began their work. The French language was used in all general discussions.

The work of the convention was divided into three parts: That of limiting preparations for war, that concerning laws and customs of war, and that of arbitration or of peaceably settling all differences between two countries. The delegates were divided into three committees, to each of which was given one of these topics to consider. Since arbitration was at that time a new idea to many people, the committee on arbitration had a great deal of important work to do. Each day for ten long weeks the committees met, and discussed earnestly and courteously the great questions that rose before them. All class distinctions were forgotten and a general feeling of sympathy and good-will pervaded the meetings.

One of the most important results of the conference was the provision for a permanent Court of Arbitration to which all nations may take their differences and have them settled impartially. Each nation was allowed to choose four members to sit in this court, which was to convene whenever occasion demanded. In 1901 the nations had chosen their members and the court was organized, ready for work. Many nations have since then gone to this tribunal for help in settling perplexing questions. Holland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden have agreed to submit all their differences to this court for settlement. Thus a great work was begun.

In 1907 the Czar called a second peace conference at The Hague. This time forty-four countries responded — almost every country in the world. The members met in the *Hall of Knights*, an old building near the center of The Hague. The conference lasted four months, and as a result fourteen agreements were signed.

This conference provided for a World Court of Nations to work with the Court of Arbitration. The world looks to this court to establish a strong new code of international laws.

One of the first cases to be taken before this court was the dispute between the United States and England, concerning the fisheries in Canadian waters. The trouble was satisfactorily settled.

Holland has given a site at the entrance of the forest surrounding the House in the Wood for a permanent Peace Palace, and Andrew Carnegie contributed necessary funds for erecting the building.

Song . . . . *Angel of Peace*

Recitation . . . . . . *There Is So Much to Do*

There is so much to do! The call to arms
Is heard from every side,— the foes of life,
Sin, sickness, sloth, seductive slander rife
With dire disaster,— cruel war's alarms.
The city's shame of wallowing graft and greed,
The sleek, smooth plea of coward policy,—
The bug-a-boo of personal liberty,—

The law a recreant to the people's need!
Why sit the worthy idle? are there then
  No heroes more? We surely need the brave,
  The strong, the unafraid, when Death and Hell
  Unite to maim the myriad sons of men.
Ye who for glory's sake the crash of battle crave,
Peace calls on you her ruthless foes to quell.
— Florence Holbrook.

Reading . . . . *Heroes in Times of Peace*

'Twas said: "When roar of drum and battle's roar
Shall cease upon the earth, O, then no more
The deed, the race of heroes in the land."
But scarce that word was breathed when one small hand
Lifted victorious o'er a giant wrong
That had its victims crushed through ages long;
Some woman set her pale and quivering face,
Firm as a rock, against a man's disgrace;
A little child suffered in silence lest
His savage pain should wound a mother's breast;
Some quiet scholar flung his gauntlet down
And risked, in Truth's great name, the synod's frown;
A civic hero, in the calm realm of laws
Did that which suddenly drew a world's applause;
And one to the pest his lithe young body gave
That he a thousand thousand lives might save. — Selected.

Song . . . . *Hear, O Ye Nations*
(Vol. III, page 461)

Recitation . . . . *Recessional*

God of our fathers, known of old —
  Lord of our far-flung battle-line —
Beneath Whose awful Hand we hold
  Dominion over palm and pine —
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget — lest we forget!

The tumult and the shouting dies —
  The captains and the kings depart —
Still stands Thine ancient Sacrifice,
  An humble and a contrite heart.
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget — lest we forget!

Far-called our navies melt away —
On dune and headland sinks the fire —
Lo, all our pomp of yesterday
Is one with Ninevah and Tyre!
Judge of the Nations, spare us yet,
Lest we forget — lest we forget!

If, drunk with sight of power, we loose
Wild tongues that have not Thee in awe —
Such boasting as the Gentiles use
Or lesser breeds without the Law —
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget — lest we forget!

For heathen heart that puts her trust
In reeking tube and iron shard —
All valiant dust that builds on dust,
And guarding calls not Thee to guard —
For frantic boast and foolish word,
Thy Mercy on Thy People, Lord! Amen.
— Rudyard Kipling.

Reading . . . . *Christ of the Andes*

For many years there was trouble between Argentina and Chile over their boundary line. Many rivers starting in the Andes in Argentina flowed through Chile to the ocean. Chile claimed the territory in which they had their source. In 1900 the dispute over this matter was renewed. So strong was the ill-feeling aroused that both countries mobilized their armies and prepared for war.

Two good bishops, one residing in Chile and the other in Argentina, were greatly distressed over the prospects of war. Each felt keenly the injustice of it. Therefore they visited the rulers of these states and begged them to allow the question to be settled by arbitration. The British ministers to both countries also urged arbitration. Finally it was decided that the matter should be laid before the king of England, and thus settled.

The king, assisted by his best judges, went carefully over the matter and decided that part of the disputed territory should be given to each of the two countries. This arrangement was satisfactory to both Argentina and Chile.

Three years later, a Chilean cruiser, bearing the treaties of peace, left the Valparaiso harbor, traveled south around Cape Horn and on to Buenos Aires. At the entrance of the harbor it was met by the whole Argentina fleet, gay with flying colors, and 3000 other vessels, which escorted it into the harbor. This was the first time a Chilean man-of-war had ever been publicly welcomed and anchored in Argentina. Appropriate exercises followed.

To commemorate the signing of this treaty, and to stand as a silent reminder of it, a statue of Christ, made of bronze, was erected in 1904 on the boundary line between the two countries, near the railroad which connects the two capitals. It is 14,000 feet above the sea. The statue was cast in the Buenos Aires arsenal from a bronze cannon taken during Argentina's struggle with Spain to secure her independence. It stands on a granite base which bears two bronze tablets, one presented by the working men of Buenos Aires and one by the working women. One tells the story of the statue. The other bears this inscription:

"Sooner shall these mountains crumble into dust than Argentines and Chileans break the peace which at the feet of Christ the Redeemer they have sworn to maintain."

Recitation . . . . . . *Stanzas on Freedom*

Men! whose boast it is that ye
Come of the fathers brave and free,
If there breathe on earth a slave,
Are ye truly free and brave?
If ye do not feel the chain,
When it works a brother's pain,
Are ye not base slaves indeed,
Slaves unworthy to be freed?
Women! who shall one day bear
Sons to breathe New England air,
If ye hear, without a blush,
Deeds to make the roused blood rush
Like red lava through your veins,
For your sisters now in chains,—
Answer! are ye fit to be
Mothers of the brave and free?

Is true Freedom but to break
Fetters for our own dear sake,
And, with leathern hearts, forget
That we owe mankind a debt?
No! true freedom is to share
All the chains our brothers wear,
And, with heart and hand, to be
Earnest to make others free!

They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three.
— James Russell Lowell.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Recitation . . . . *The Fatherland*

Where is the true man's fatherland?
  Is it where he by chance is born?
  Doth not the yearning spirit scorn
In such scant borders to be spanned?
Oh yes! his fatherland must be
As the blue heaven wide and free!

Is it alone where freedom is,
  Where God is God and man is man?
  Doth he not claim a broader span
For the soul's love of home than this?
Oh yes! his fatherland must be
As the blue heaven wide and free!

Where'er a human heart doth wear
  Joy's myrtle-wreath or sorrow's gyves,
Where'er a human spirit strives
After a life more true and fair,
There is the true man's birthplace grand,
His is a world-wide fatherland!

Recitation . . . . *Ode to Peace*

Daughter of God! that sitt'st on high
Amid the dances of the sky,
And guidest with thy gentle sway
The planets on their tuneful way;
    Sweet Peace! shall ne'er again
The smile of thy most holy face,
From thine ethereal dwelling-place,
Rejoice the wretched, weary race
    Of discord-breathing men?
Too long, O gladness-giving Queen!
Thy tarrying in heaven had been;
Too long o'er this fair blooming world
The flag of blood has been unfurled,
    Polluting God's pure day;
Whilst, as each maddening people reels,
War onward drives his scythèd wheels,
And at his horses' bloody heels
    Shriek Murder and Dismay.

Oft have I wept to hear the cry
Of widow wailing bitterly;
To see the parent's silent tear
For children fallen beneath the spear;
    And I have felt so sore
The sense of human guilt and woe,
That I, in Virtue's passioned glow,
Have cursed (my soul was wounded so)
    The shape of man I bore!
Then come from thy serene abode,
Thou gladness-giving child of God!
And cease the world's ensanguined strife,
And reconcile my soul to life;
    For much I long to see,
Ere I shall to the grave descend,
Thy hand its blessed branch extend,
And to the world's remotest end
    Wave Love and Harmony!

— William Tennant.

Song . . . . *America*

Reading . . . . *The Battle of Blenheim*

The great Battle of Blenheim was fought on August 13, 1704, near Blenheim, a town on the River Danube. Marlborough commanded the English army which was allied with the Germans against the French and Bavarians. It was "a famous victory," but 37,000 lives were lost. The poem was written by Robert Southey, who was made Poet Laureate of England in 1813. By means of a very simple talk between an old man and a little boy and girl, who had found the skull of one of the slain soldiers a hundred years after the battle, the poet shows us what a terrible curse is war.

It was a summer evening,
  Old Kaspar's work was done,
And he before his cottage door
  Was sitting in the sun;
And by him sported on the green
His little grandchild, Wilhelmine.

She saw her brother Peterkin
  Roll something large and round,
Which he beside the rivulet
  In playing there had found;
He came to ask what he had found,
That was so large and smooth, and round.

Old Kaspar took it from the boy,
  Who stood expectant by;
And then the old man shook his head,
  And with a natural sigh —
"'Tis some poor fellow's skull," said he,
"Who fell in the great victory.

"I find them in my garden, for
  There's many here about;
And often when I go to plough
  The ploughshare turns them out;
For many thousand men," said he,
"Were slain in that great victory."

"Now tell us what 'twas all about,"
  Young Peterkin he cries,
And little Wilhelmine looks up
  With wonder-waiting eyes.
"Now tell us all about the war,
And what they fought each other for."

"It was the English," Kaspar cried,
"Who put the French to rout;
But what they fought each other for
I could not well make out.
But everybody said," quoth he,
"That 'twas a famous victory.

. . . . .

"They say it was a shocking sight
After the field was won;
For many thousand bodies here
Lay rotting in the sun:
But things like that, you know, must be,
After a famous victory.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlbro' won,
And our good Prince Eugene."
"Why, 'twas a very wicked thing!"
Said little Wilhelmine.
"Nay, nay, my little girl," quoth he,
"It was a famous victory.

"And everybody praised the Duke
Who this great fight did win."
"But what good came of it at last?"
Quoth little Peterkin.
"Why, that I cannot tell," said he,
"But 'twas a famous victory."

Exercise . . . . *A Court of Arbitration*

This exercise is for all or part of the pupils, and its purpose is to show how the spirit of harmony may be preserved in a school by the use of arbitration. Teacher and pupils should select some point of dispute (something of local interest), choose judges to sit in a court of arbitration, have opposite sides give their testimony, and listen to the verdict of the judges. If carefully planned, this is a helpful and interesting exercise.

AMERICAN SCHOOL PEACE LEAGUE

The American School Peace League was organized in 1908 to promote through the schools and the public of America the interests of international justice and fraternity. All teachers in the schools of the United States, students in high schools, normal schools, colleges and universities, and persons otherwise interested in the work of education may become members without the payment of dues by signifying their devotion to the purpose of the League. The headquarters are in Boston.

MONUMENT TO UNKNOWN DEAD, NAT'L CEMETERY. ARLINGTON.
U
C
V
1861–1865

MEMORIAL DAY

THE NAMELESS DEAD

We only know they fought and died, and o'er their graves the wind has sighed, for many a long, slow-footed year; and winter's snow has drifted here; and in the dawning warmth of spring the joyous birds came here to sing; we only know that rest is sweet to weary hearts and toiling feet, and they who sleep beneath the sod gave all they had to give to God. And in the radiance of the Throne, their names are known — their names are known! We know not from what homes they came we can but guess their dreams of fame; but lamps for them did vainly burn, and mothers waited their return, and listened, at some cottage door, for steps that sounded never more; and loving eyes grew dim with tears, and hearts grew old with grief of years. And here they sleep, as they have slept, since legions o'er the country swept; where mothers wait before the Throne, their names are known — their names are known!

—Walt Mason.

Opening Song . . . (Tune: *My Old Kentucky Home*)

The sun hangs low by the old camp-fire,
Our soldiers are all gone away!
There's a thrill in the heart and a song in the air,
Upon this Memorial Day!
The stars shine bright by the old camp-fire,
Our heroes, where are they?
We scatter flowers with loving hands,
Alike o'er the blue and the gray.

Chorus

Bring the fife and drum,
And tune up the lyre,
For we will sing of the heroes gone —
For our soldiers and the old camp-fire.
— Laura R. Smith.

Recitation . . . . *What Makes a Nation*

What makes a nation? Is it ships or states or flags or guns?
Or is it that great common heart which beats in all her sons —
That makes a nation great and strong and certain to endure,
This subtle inner voice that thrills a man and makes him sure;
Which makes him know there is no north or south or east or west,
But that his land must ever stand the bravest and the best.
— W. D. Nesbit.

Reading . . . . . . *The Origin of Memorial Day*

The custom of decorating the soldiers' graves originated in the South. Two years after the close of the Civil War, an article appeared in the New York *Tribune* telling how the women of Columbus, Miss., had decorated the graves of both Southern and Union soldiers with flowers. This touched the hearts of all who had suffered by the awful struggle, especially those of the North. The feeling thus awakened is beautifully expressed in *The Blue and the Gray*, by Frances M. Finch. (Page 425.)

In May, 1868, Gen. John A. Logan, then commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, recommended that the 30th of May be set aside for the purpose of decorating the graves of those who fell in the war. He added, "It is the purpose of the commander-in-chief to inaugurate this observance with the hope that it will be kept up from year to year while a survivor of the war remains to honor the memory of the departed."

State legislatures have acted upon his suggestion, and the day is now a legal holiday throughout most of the Northern states.

Because flowers blossom earlier in the southern part of the country, an earlier date is usually observed there. While no general day has been set aside, April 26th is observed by many of the states in this section, while others observe different dates.

In the North, the Grand Army of the Republic, and in the South, the United Confederate Veterans have charge of the ceremonies wherever parts of these organizations exist. They see that the graves of all soldiers are decorated with flowers, and that appropriate exercises are held.

Song . . . . *Scatter the Flowers*

(Tune, *Tenting on the Old Camp Ground*)

We come with gifts of flowers sweet
For each dear soldier's grave;
We'll cover the mounds where they gently sleep,
Those boys so true and brave.

Chorus

Many are the boys who are sleeping for aye,
Under the sod and dew;
Many are the hearts voicing love today
To those brave boys in blue.
Scatter the flowers, scatter the flowers,
Over the soldiers' graves.

We'll cover the graves of our soldier dead,
Who made their country free,
Who left their homes and fought and bled
And died for liberty.

We'll bring them today the violets blue,
And roses red and white,
Those colors bright they bore so true,
For God, and home and right.

Recitation . . . . . . *The New Memorial Day*

Oh, the roses we plucked for the blue
And the lilies we twined for the gray,
We have bound in a wreath,
And in silence beneath
Slumber our heroes today.

Over the new-turned sod
The sons of our fathers stand,
And the fierce old fight
Slips out of sight
In the clasp of a brother's hand.

For the old blood left a stain
That the new has washed away,
And the sons of those
That have faced as foes
Are marching together today.

Oh, the blood that our fathers gave!
Oh, the tide of our mothers' tears!
And the flow of red,
And the tears they shed,
Embittered a sea of years.

But the roses we plucked for the blue,
And the lilies we twined for the gray,
We have bound in a wreath,
And in glory beneath
Slumber our heroes today.

— Albert Bigelow Paine.

Recitation . . . . *Memorial Day*

With waving of starry banners,
With music of bugles sweet,
All day through our streets has echoed
The tramp of marching feet.
From many a mountain valley,
From city and town and hill,
Around the graves where their comrades sleep,
The soldiers gather still.

They think of the bitter partings
When first they marched away —
The ranks of blue from the northland,
From the sunny south the gray —
Some with hearts that were eager
And hot with the fire of youth,
Some with purpose steady
To fight for God and truth.

They think of the battle's tumult,
And the cannon's sullen roar,
And the yellow glow of sunset light
When the weary fight was o'er,
When, gathered round the campfire,
Their yearning thoughts would roam,
And softly sweet some comrade sang
The words of "Home, Sweet Home."

And year by year we gather,
With wreaths and garlands gay,
To deck the graves where dreaming lie
The ranks of blue and gray.
And the grass shall wave o'er the low green tent,
And blossoms crown the sod,
When the last brave soldiers fall asleep
In the long, sweet peace of God.

— Angelina W. Wray.

Recitation . . . . *The Blue and the Gray*

(See page 425)

Reading . . . . *The Palmetto and the Pine*

There grows a fair palmetto in the sunny Southern lands;
Upon the stern New England hills a sombre pine-tree stands;
And each towers like a monument above the perished brave;
A grave 'neath the palmetto — beneath the pine a grave.

The Carolina widow comes this bright May day to spread
Magnolia and jessamine above her soldier dead.
And the Northern mother violets strews upon her son below,—
Her only son who fell so many weary years ago.

Tears for the gallant Yankee boy — one of Grant's heroes he;
Tears for the stalwart Southern man—the man who marched with Lee;
But love, and only love, between the lonely ones who twine
Their wreaths 'neath the palmetto — their chaplets 'neath the pine.

Oh, tried tree of the Southland! from whose trunks were wrought
The ramparts of that glorious fort where Sergeant Jaspar fought;
Oh, true tree of the Northland! whose pictured form supplied
The emblem of our earliest flag, that waved when Warren died —

Still watch the dead you've watched so long, the dead who died so well;
And matrons, mourn, as mourn you must, your lost dear ones who fell;
But joy and peace and hope to all, now North and South combine
In one grand whole, as one soil bears the palmetto and the pine!
— Manley H. Pike.

ong . . *Te[illegible]t on the Old Camp Ground*

citation . . . . *Decoration Day*

Here bring your purple and gold,
Glory of color and scent!
Scarlet of tulips bold,
Buds blue as the firmament.

Hushed is the sound of the fife
And the bugle piping clear;
The vivid and delicate life
In the soul of the youthful year.

We bring to the quiet dead
A gentle and tempered grief,
O'er the mounds so mute we shed
The beauty of blossom and leaf.

Rich fires of the gardens and meads,
We kindle these hearts above!
What splendor shall match their deeds?
What sweetness can match our love?
— Celia Thaxter.

Recitation . . . . *The Veterans*

Every year they're marching slower,
Every year they're stooping lower,
Every year the lilting music stirs the hearts of older men;
Every year the flags above them
Seem to bend and bless and love them
As if grieving for the future when they'll never march again!

Every year with dwindling number,
Loyal still to those that slumber,
Forth they march to where already many have found peace at last,
And they place the fairest blossoms
O'er the silent, mould'ring bosoms
Of the valiant friends and comrades of the battles of the past.

Every year grow dimmer, duller,
Tattered flag and faded color;
Every year the hands that bear them find a harder task to do.
And the eyes that only brightened
When the blaze of battle lightened,
Like the tattered flags they follow are grown dim and faded too.

Every year we see them massing,
Every year we watch them passing,
Scarcely pausing in our hurry after pleasure, after gain;
But the battle flags above them,
Seem to bend and bless and love them,
And through all the lilting music sounds an undertone of pain!
— Dennis D. McCarthy.

Recitation . . . . *Freedom, Our Queen*

(Four pupils.)

First pupil — Land where the banners wave last in the sun,
Blazoned with star-clusters, many in one,
Floating o'er prairie and mountain and sea;
Hark! 'tis the voice of thy children to thee!

Second pupil — Here at thine altar our vows we renew
Still in thy cause to be loyal and true,—
True to thy flag on the field and the wave,
Living to honor it, dying to save!

Third pupil — Mother of heroes! if perfidy's blight
Fall on a star in thy garland of light,
Sound but one bugle-blast! Lo! at the sign
Armies all panoplied wheel into line!

Fourth pupil — Hope of the world! thou hast broken its chains,—
Wear thy bright arms while a tyrant remains,
Stand for the right till the nations shall own
Freedom their sovereign, with Law for her throne!

Together — Freedom! sweet Freedom! our voices resound,
Queen by God's blessing, unsceptred, uncrowned!
Freedom, sweet Freedom, our pulses repeat,
Warm with her life-blood, as long as they beat!

Fold the broad banner-stripes over her breast,—
Crown her with star-jewels Queen of the West!
Earth for her heritage, God for her friend,
She shall reign over us, world without end.
— Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Flower Drill for Girls

Reading . . . . *Belligerent Non-Combatants*

(From address in connection with Memorial Day, at New York, 1878, deploring war as only "the last dread tribunal of kings and peoples.")

"The flippant manner in which some of our orators and newspaper critics make use of warlike terms, warrants me in warning them of the danger of playing with edged tools. . . Men who have felt the sting of the bullet, who have heard the crash of the cannon's shot and exploding shell, or have witnessed its usual scenes of havoc and desolation, rarely appeal to war as a remedy for ordinary grievances. Wars are usually made by civilians, bold and defiant in the forum; but when the storm comes, they go below and leave their innocent comrades to catch the 'peltings of the pitiless storm.' Of the half-million of brave fellows whose graves have this day been strewn with flowers, not one in a thousand had the remotest connection with the causes of the war which led to their untimely death. . . . I now hope, and beg, that all good men, North and South, will unite in real earnest, to repair the mistakes and wrongs of the past; will persevere in the common effort to make this great land of ours to blossom as the garden of Eden. . . .

"I invoke all, within the hearing of my voice, to heed well the lessons of this 'Decoration Day'; to weave, each year, a fresh garland for the grave of some beloved comrade or favorite hero, and to rebuke any and all who talk of civil war, save as the 'last dread tribunal of kings and peoples.'"

—William Tecumseh Sherman.

Recitation . . . . *The Moral Welfare*

Our fathers to their graves have gone,
Their strife is past, their triumphs won;
But sterner trials wait the race
Which rises in their honored place.

So let it be. In God's own might
We gird us for the coming fight;
And strong in Him whose cause is ours,
In conflict with unholy powers,
We grasp the weapons he has given,
The Light, and Truth, and Love of Heaven.
— Whittier.

Song . . . . *America*

PATRIOTIC SUGGESTIONS

Many cities and schools have adopted the pleasing custom of soliciting addresses on Memorial Day from Veterans who have served in war. The ranks of the Grand Army of the Republic and of the United Confederate Veterans are sadly thinned by time, but their members yet gladly respond to invitations of this kind. A younger generation, among whom are good speakers, comprises those who fought in the Spanish-American War; many of these are sons of heroes of the war between the states. As a result of the greatest of all wars, the War of the Nations, there are Americans lying "somewhere in France" for whom there must be memorials, and brothers-in-arms will be proud to honor on Memorial Day those they left on foreign fields.

Flags and flowers should form the chief decorations for the day. If soldiers conduct services, it may be a good plan to have the school combine its program with theirs.

SALUTE TO THE FLAG

Let the pupils all stand and salute the flag:
I give my head, my heart, and my hands to my country. One country, one language, and one flag.

Opening Song . . *Hurrah for the Flag*
(Page 388.)

Recitation . . . *The American Flag*
(For this poem see page 254.)

Exercise for several pupils . *History of Our Flag*
(See Type Study, *The American Flag*, page 247.)

Song . . . *The Red, White and Blue*

Recitation . . *The Flower of Liberty*

What flower is this that greets the morn,
Its hues from Heaven so freshly born?
With burning star and flaming band
It kindles all the sunset land:
Oh, tell us what the name may be,
Is this the Flower of Liberty?
　It is the banner of the free;
　The starry Flower of Liberty!

In savage Nature's far abode
Its tender seed our fathers sowed;
The storm-winds rocked its swelling bud,
Its opening leaves were streaked with blood,
Till lo! earth's tyrants shook to see
The full-blown Flower of Liberty!
　Then hail the banner of the free,
　The starry Flower of Liberty!

Behold its streaming rays unite,
One mingling flood of braided light,—
The red that fires the Southern rose,
With spotless white from Northern snows,
And, spangled o'er its azure, see
The sister Stars of Liberty!
Then hail the banner of the free,
The starry Flower of Liberty!

The blades of heroes fence it round,
Where'er it springs is holy ground;
From tower and dome its glories spread;
It waves where lonely sentries tread;
It makes the land as ocean free,
And plants an empire on the sea!
Then hail the banner of the free,
The starry Flower of Liberty!

Thy sacred leaves, fair Freedom's flower,
Shall ever float on dome and tower,
To all their heavenly colors true,
In blackening frost or crimson dew,—
And God love us as we love thee —
Thrice holy Flower of Liberty!
Then hail the banner of the free,
The starry Flower of Liberty!

— Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Recitation . . . . *Union and Liberty*

Flag of the heroes who left us their glory,
Borne through their battle-fields' thunder and flame,
Blazoned in song and illumined in glory,
Wave o'er us all who inherit their fame.

Up with our banner bright,
Sprinkled with starry light,
Spread its fair emblems from mountain to shore,
While through the sounding sky
Loud rings the nation's cry,
Union and Liberty, one evermore!

Light of our firmament, guide of our nation,
Pride of her children, and honored afar,
Let the wide beams of thy full constellation
Scatter each cloud that would darken a star.

Empire unsceptred, what foe shall assail thee,
Bearing the standard of Liberty's van?
Think not the God of thy fathers shall fail thee,
Striving with men for the birthright of man.

Lord of the Universe, shield us and guide us,
Trusting Thee always, through shadow and sun.
Thou hast united us, who shall divide us?
Keep us, oh, keep us the MANY IN ONE.
— Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Flag Day Exercise

(Boys and girls with flags sing. Tune, "Yankee Doodle.")

1.

Oh, bring the bonnie stars and stripes,
And you will hear us saying,
We love the red and white and blue,
Whose colors we're displaying.

Chorus:

Wave again the bonnie flag,
Loved in song and story,
Wave again the bonnie flag,
We salute Old Glory.

2.

Oh wave the banners everywhere,
We love the colors gleaming,
From every flagstaff in our land
The bonnie flag is streaming.

Chorus:

(Children bearing flags with letters to spell the word "Flag" upon them, line up and recite.)

F — For you our brave men fought and died,
In you we take an honest pride.

L — Love the flag, be loyal too,
To the red and white and blue.

A — Again we meet upon Flag Day,
While everywhere the banners sway.

G — Give the flag salute, for so,
Into patriots we grow.

All — Bonnie flag, bonnie flag,
We all love to tell.
Bonnie flag, bonnie flag,
That we love you well.
(Repeat chorus of song and march off.)
— Laura Rountree Smith.
Progressive Teacher, June, 1916.

Recitation . . . . *Our Flag*

(Four pupils representing respectively, the red, the white, the blue and the stars. Four girls dressed in white with sashes of appropriate colors can give this effectively.)

Together — All hail to the flag of our country,
The glorious red, white and blue,
Whose stripes and bright stars all remind us
Of our struggle for liberty true!

First pupil — The red is for courage 'mid danger,
'Twas shown by the patriots of old,
Who fought to redeem their loved nation,
And not for the promise of gold.

Second pupil — The blue stands for truth and for freedom,
Which God grant may forever endure,
When ages shall roll upon ages,
And the havoc of war is no more.

Third pupil — The white is for peace and for purity,
Emblems of contentment and love,
May they live in the heart of our nation
And rest on our homes like the dove.

Fourth pupil — The stars in their blue field so brilliant,
Are truly the gift of God's love,
Like the "forget-me-nots of the angels"
In the great firmament above.

Together — In your broad stripes of white and crimson,
We read how we struggled to free
Our nation from strife and oppression
When to Britannia we bowed the knee.

Your hues, stars and stripes, are all blended
In beauty, proud flag of the free;
We hail thee, our glorious banner
Bright hope of our sweet liberty.
— Mary E. Rowe.

Reading . . . . . . *The Star Spangled Banner*

During the War of 1812, a British fleet was bombarding Fort McHenry. Mr. Francis Scott Key visited this fleet under a flag of truce to obtain the release of a friend. He was detained all night. His anxiety for the safety of the fort increased as the hours dragged away. As soon as day began to dawn, he searched the shore line with his field glass to see if he could learn how the battle had gone. His soul was filled with joy when he beheld the Stars and Stripes still floating over the fort. As he went ashore that morning he composed one of our greatest national hymns, *The Star Spangled Banner.*

Song . . . . . . *The Star Spangled Banner*

Reading . . . . *The American Flag*

This flag is the symbol of our national unity, our national endeavor, of our national aspiration. It tells you of the . . . sacrifice of brave men and women to whom the ideals and honor of this nation have been dearer than life.

It means America first; it means an undivided allegiance. It means America united, strong, and efficient, equal to her tasks. It means that you cannot be saved by the valor and devotion of your ancestors; that to each generation comes its patriotic duty; and that upon your willingness to sacrifice and endure, as those before you have sacrificed and endured, rests the national hope.

It speaks of equal rights; of the inspiration of free institutions exemplified and vindicated; of liberty under the law, intelligently conceived and impartially administered. There is not a thread in it but scores self-indulgence, weakness, and rapacity.

It is eloquent of our common interests, outweighing all divergencies of opinion and of our common destiny.

— Charles Evans Hughes.

Song . . . . . . *Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean*

THE MEANING OF OUR FLAG

"For me the flag does not express a mere body of vague sentiments. It is the embodiment, not of sentiment, but of a history, and no man can rightly serve under that flag who has not caught some of the meaning of that history.

"You do not create the meaning of a national life by any literary expression of it, but by the actual daily endeavors of a great people to do the tasks of the day and live up to the ideals of honesty and righteousness and just conduct.

"Let us not forget that the real experience and life of a nation lies with the great multitude of unknown men. They constitute the body of the nation. This flag is the essence of their daily labor. This flag does not express any more than what they are and what they desire to be.

"Back not only of every public official, but of every man and woman of the United States, there marches that great host which has brought us to the present day; the host that has never forgot the vision which it saw at the birth of the nation; the host which always responds to the dictates of humanity and of liberty; the host that will always constitute the strength and the great body of friends of every man who does his duty to the United States.

"I am sorry that you do not wear a little flag of the Union every day instead of some days; and I can only ask you, if you lose the physical emblem, to be sure that you wear it in your heart, and the heart of America shall interpret the heart of the world."

—*Woodrow Wilson.*

"Every color means liberty, every thread means liberty, every form of star or stripe of light means liberty —organized, instituted liberty—liberty through laws and laws for liberty. It is a whole national history."

—*Henry Ward Beecher.*

Recitation . . . . *The Flag's Message*

I swing before your eyes as a bright gleam of color, a symbol of yourself, the pictured suggestion of that big thing which makes this nation. My stars and my stripes are your dreams and your labors. They are bright with cheer, brilliant with courage, firm with faith because you have made them so out of your hearts, for you are the makers of the flag and it is well that you glory in the making. — Franklin K. Lane.

Recitation . . . . *Stand by The Flag*

Stand by the Flag! Its stars, like meteors gleaming,
Have lighted Arctic icebergs, southern seas,
And shone responsive to the stormy beaming
Of old Arcturus and the Pleiades.

Stand by the Flag! Its stripes have streamed in glory,
To foes a fear, to friends a festal robe,
And spread in rhythmic lines the sacred story
Of Freedom's triumphs over all the globe.

Stand by the Flag! On land and ocean billow
By it your fathers stood unmoved and true,
Living, defended; dying, from their pillow,
With their last blessing, passed it on to you.

Stand by the Flag! Immortal heroes bore it
Through sulphurous smoke, deep moat and
armed defense;
And their imperial Shades still hover o'er it,
A guard celestial from Omnipotence.

— John Nichols Wilder.

Flag Drill for Boys

Song . . . . *America*

SUGGESTIONS

Flags and bunting should constitute the chief decorations. Small flags or badges can be procured at slight expense and it will add to the interest of the pupils if each can have one to wear.

If time permits sing more patriotic songs than are suggested in the program. Call attention to the flag days, a list of which will be found in Vol. III, page 445. Of course your school has a flag, and a committee of pupils should be appointed to see that the flag is raised on special flag days.

CLOSING DAY

The Old Swimmin'-Hole

Oh! the old swimmin'-hole! Whare the crick so still and deep
Looked like a baby-river that was laying half asleep,
And the gurgle of the worter round the drift just below
Sounded like the laugh of something we onc't ust to know
Before we could remember anything but the eyes
Of the angels lookin' out as we left Paradise;
But the merry days of Youth is beyond our controle,
And it's hard to part forever with the old swimmin'-hole.

. . . . .

Oh! the old swimmin'-hole! In the happy days of yore,
When I ust to lean above it on the old sickamore,
Oh! it showed me a face in its warm sunny tide
That gazed back at me so gay and glorified,
It made me love myself, as I leaped to caress
My shadder smilin' up at me with sich tenderness.
But them days is past and gone, and old Time's tuck his toll
From the old man come back to the old swimmin'-hole.

Like the rain that ust to dapple up the old swimmin'-hole.

Thare the bullrushes growed, and the cattails so tall,
And the sunshine and shadder feel over it all;
And it mottled the worter with amber and gold
Tel the glad lilies rocked in the ripples that rolled;
And the snake-feeder's four gauzy wings fluttered by
Like the ghost of a daisy dropped out of the sky,
Or a wounded apple-blossom in the breeze's controle,
As it cut acrost some orchurd to'rds the old swimmin'-hole.

Oh! the old swimmin'-hole! When I last saw the place,
The scenes was all changed, like the change in my face;
The bridge of the railroad now crosses the spot
Whare the old divin'-log lays sunk and fergot.
And I stray down the banks whare the trees ust to be —
But never again will theyr shade shelter me!
And I wish in my sorrow I could strip to the soul,
And dive off in my grave like the old swimmin'-hole.

— James Whitcomb Riley.

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Song . . . . *Selected*

Exercise . . . . *The Things that Count*

(This is an exercise for five boys, each of whom will carry a smal standard. On these will be inscribed respectively: ***Patriotism***, ***Determination***, ***Industry***, ***Truthfulness*** and ***Opportunity***.)

If such there breathe, go, mark him well!
For him no minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim,—
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentered all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.
— Sir Walter Scott.

The Will and the Way

It was a noble Roman,
In Rome's imperial day,
Who heard a coward croaker
Before the castle say;
"They're safe in such a fortress;
There is no way to shake it!"
"On — on," exclaimed the hero,
"I'll find a way, or make it!"

Is fame your aspiration?
Her path is steep and high;
In vain he seeks her temple,
Content to gaze and sigh;
The shining throne is waiting,
But he alone can take it
Who says, with Roman firmness,
"I'll find a way, or make it!"

Is learning your ambition?
There is no royal road;
Alike the peer and peasant
Must climb to her abode;
Who feels the thirst of knowledge
In Helicon may slake it,
If he has still the Roman will
"To find a way, or make it!"
— John G. Saxe.

Work

Let me but do my work from day to day,
In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
In roaring market-place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray,
"This is my work; my blessing, not my doom;
Of all who live, I am the one by whom
This work can best be done in the right way."
Then shall I see it not too great nor small,
To suit my spirit and to prove my powers;
Then shall I cheerful greet the laboring hours,
And cheerful turn, when the long shadows fall
At eventide, to play and love and rest,
Because I know for me my work is best.
— Henry Van Dyke.

Be True

Thou must be true thyself
If thou the truth wouldst teach;
Thy soul must overflow, if thou
Another's soul wouldst reach!
It needs the overflow of heart
To give the lips full speech.

Think truly, and thy thoughts
Shall the world's famine feed;
Speak truly, and each word of thine
Shall be a fruitful seed;
Live truly, and thy life shall be
A great and noble creed.
— Horatius Bonar.

Opportunity

Master of human destinies am I!
Fame, love, and fortune on my footsteps wait.
Cities and fields I walk; I penetrate
Deserts and seas remote, and passing by
Hovel and mart and palace — soon or late
I knock unbidden once at every gate!

If sleeping, wake — if feasting, rise before
I turn away. It is the hour of fate,
And they who follow me reach every state
Mortals desire, and conquer every foe
Save death; but those who doubt or hesitate,
Condemned to failure, penury, and woe,
Seek me in vain and uselessly implore,
I answer not, and I return no more!
— John James Ingalls.

Recitation . . . . *If I Knew*

If I knew the box where the smiles are kept,
No matter how large the key
Or strong the bolt, I would try so hard
'Twould open, I know, for me;
Then over the land and the sea broadcast,
I'd scatter the smiles to play,
That the children's faces might hold them fast
For many and many a day.

If I knew a box that was large enough
To hold all the frowns I meet,
I would like to gather them, every one,
From nursery, school and street;
Then folding and holding, I'd pack them in,
And turning the monster key,
I'd hire a giant to drop the box
To the depths of the deep, deep sea.
— Maud Wyman.

Recitation . . . . *The Fairy Sisters*

There was once a little maiden,
And she had a mirror bright;
It was rimmed about with silver,
'Twas her pride and her delight,
But she found two fairy sisters
Lived within this pretty glass,
And very different faces showed,
To greet the little lass.

The *frowning* one looked out.

Now this little maiden loved so much
The smiling face to see,
That she resolved with all her heart
A happy child to be.
To grow more sweet and loving,
She tried with might and main,
Till the frowning sister went away,
And ne'er came back again.

But if she's looking for a home,
As doubtless is the case,
She'll try to find a little girl
Who has a gloomy face.
So be very, very careful,
If you own a mirror too,
That the frowning sister doesn't come
And make her home with you.
— Helen Standish Perkins.

Recitation . . . . *Little Brown Hands*

They drive home the cows from the pasture,
Up through the long shady lane,
Where the quail whistles loud in the wheatfields
That are yellow with ripening grain.
They find in the thick waving grasses,
Where the scarlet-lipped strawberry grows.
They gather the earliest snowdrops,
And the first crimson buds of the rose.

They toss the new hay in the meadow;

Those who toil bravely are strongest;
The humble and poor become great;
And so from these brown-handed children
Shall grow mighty rulers of state.
The pen of the author and statesman —
The noble and wise of the land —
The sword, and the chisel and palette
Shall be held in the little brown hand.

— M. H. Krout.

Girls' Chorus . . . . *Selected*

Recitation . . . . *A Laugh*

A laugh is just like sunshine,
It freshens all the day,
It tips the peaks of life with light
And drives the clouds away.
The soul grows glad that hears it,
And feels its courage strong,
A laugh is just like sunshine,
For cheering folks along.

A laugh is just like music,
It lingers in the heart,
And where its melody is heard
The ills of life depart,
And happy thoughts come crowding
Its joyful notes to greet,
A laugh is just like music
For making living sweet.

— Selected.

Song . . . . *Selected*

Recitation . . . . *If*

IF you can keep your head when all about you
Are losing theirs and blaming it on you;
If you can trust yourself when all men doubt you,
But make allowance for their doubting too:
If you can wait and not be tired by waiting,
Or being lied about, don't deal in lies,
Or being hated don't give way to hating,
And yet don't look too good, nor talk too wise;

IF you can dream — and not make dreams your master;
If you can think — and not make thoughts your aim,
If you can meet with Triumph and Disaster
And treat those two impostors just the same:
If you can bear to hear the truth you've spoken
Twisted by knaves to make a trap for fools,
Or watch the things you gave your life to, broken,
And stoop and build 'em up with worn-out tools;

IF you can make one heap of all your winnings
And risk it on one turn of pitch-and-toss,
And lose, and start again at your beginnings
And never breathe a word about your loss:
If you can force your heart and nerve and sinew
To serve your turn long after they are gone,
And so hold on when there is nothing in you
Except the Will which says to them: "Hold on!"

IF you can talk with crowds and keep your virtue,
Or walk with Kings — nor lose the common touch,
If neither foes nor loving friends can hurt you,
If all men count with you, but none too much:
If you can fill the unforgiving minute
With sixty seconds' worth of distance run,
Yours is the Earth and everything that's in it,
And — which is more — you'll be a Man, my son!
— Rudyard Kipling.
From *Rewards and Failures*.

Recitation . . . . *Small Beginnings*

A traveller through a dusty road strewed acorns on the lea;
And one took root and sprouted up, and grew into a tree.
Love sought its shade, at evening time, to breathe its early vows;
And age was pleased, in heats of noon, to bask beneath its boughs;
The dormouse loved its dangling twigs, the birds sweet music bore;
It stood a glory in its place, a blessing evermore.

A dreamer dropped a random thought; 'twas old, and yet 'twas new;
A simple fancy of the brain, but strong in being true.
It shone upon a genial mind, and lo! its light became
A lamp of life, a beacon ray, a monitory flame.
The thought was small; its issue great; a watchfire on the hill,
It sheds its radiance far adown, and cheers the valley still!

A nameless man, amid a crowd that thronged the daily mart,
Let fall a word of Hope and Love, unstudied, from the heart;
A whisper on the tumult thrown,— a transitory breath,—
It raised a brother from the dust; it saved a soul from death.
O germ! O fount! O word of love! O thought at random cast!
Ye were but little at the first, but mighty at the last.
— Charles Mackay.

Reading . . . . *Ambition*

If you would rise above the throng
And seek the crown of fame,
You must do more than drift along
And merely play the game.
Whatever path your feet may tread,
Whatever be your quest,
The only way to get ahead
Is striving for the best.

'Tis not enough to wish to do
A day's toil fairly well;
If you would rise to glory, you
Must hunger to excel.
The boy who has the proper stuff
Goes into every test,
Not seeking to be "Good enough,"
But eager to be "best."

Aim high! And though you fail today
And may tomorrow fail,
Keep pounding steadily away,
Some day you'll hit the nail.
At no half-way mark ever pause
In snug content to rest,
Who would win honor and applause
Must want to be the best.

Must shun the "drift alongs."
— *The American Boy.*

Recitation . . . . *Our Heroes*

Here's a hand to the boy who has courage
To do what he knows to be right;
When he falls in the way of temptation
He has a hard battle to fight.
Who strives against self and his comrades,
Will find a most powerful foe;
All honor to him if he conquers,
A cheer for the boy who says "No!"

There's many a battle fought daily
The world knows nothing about;
There's many a brave little soldier
Whose strength puts a legion to rout.
And he who fights sin single-handed
Is more of a hero, I say,
Than he who leads soldiers to battle,
And conquers by arms in the fray.

Be steadfast, my boy, when you're tempted,
And do what you know to be right;
Stand firm by the colors of manhood,
And you will o'ercome in the fight.
"The right," be your battle cry ever
In waging the warfare of life;

SUGGESTIONS

The last day of school should constitute a fitting climax to a successful term's work. The exercises should be so planned as to enable both pupils and parents to receive the fullest enjoyment from them. When the season will permit, a picnic dinner on the school grounds or in a nearby grove serves the double purpose of bringing the people together and assuring a good time socially.

Wherever the exercises are held the pupils' work for the term should be placed on exhibition. The work of each pupil should be so arranged as to show his progress from month to month through the term, and this can readily be done if the teacher plans for it at the beginning of the term. Such an exhibit is an incentive to the pupils to put their best efforts into their school work, and when properly conducted it has a wholesome effect upon all interested in the school. The exhibit should consist of the regular work of the school and should not be made up of "show" exercises prepared especially for the occasion.

The decorations may consist of flags, flowers, grains or grasses, among which the exhibits should be so placed as to produce a pleasing effect. In addition to the selections rendered by the pupils, a short address by one of the school officials, or someone who can make a suitable address for the occasion, is desirable. The chief purpose of the program should be to lead the pupils to feel that they have accomplished something worth while, and to leave everyone present in a happy frame of mind.

The songs should be those which the children have learned during the term.